

The Perceptions of Professors from Different Disciplines at Taibah University Regarding

Undergraduate Students' Writing

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ABSTRACT

Studies indicated that there should be collaboration between English and Arabic teachers and disciplinary teachers in order to design instruction that will help students improve specific-discipline writing. This study was designed to investigate the stages of concern and perceptions for the professors at the University of Taibah in order to implement a writing program for specific purposes. The sample of this study was 287, who were taken from the target population, professors at Taibah University from different disciplines. This study is a descriptive study in nature using quantitative method to collect and analysis the data for this study. The study found that the profiles for all sample, gender, language of teaching, qualifications, field of disciplines and teaching experiences indicated that professors' concerns were most in areas of informational, personal and awareness stages. According to Mulitvariance analysis results, there are no significant differences among the sample based on gender, language of teaching, qualifications, field of disciplines and teaching experiences. The research results emphasize the importance of concern in a new innovation (the writing program). Those results will help the policy makers at Taibah University to facilitate professors' clear understanding and develop constructive meaning of the new writing program.

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Introduction

Writing is one of the most important skills that students need before coming to college (Nesi & Gardner, 2012). Further, academic writing is an essential skill that students need to master at university (Andrews, 2003; Elander, Harrington, Norton, Robinson, & Reddy, 2006; Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Whitehead, 2002) because writing demonstrates their understanding of the content learned. That is, writing is a tool by which knowledge and learning are articulated by students (English, 2011). University faculty also indicate that writing is an important skill in terms of academic achievement (Bacha, 2003; Campbell & Campbell, 2002). Consequently, in order to be prepared for university writing, high school students should be exposed to different writing genres and taught how to write using those styles and because one goal of high school is preparing students to successful at college level (Tanner & Tanner, 1980). Even though studies indicate how important it is for high school students to gain writing skills, students in Saudi Arabia are not provided with those skills in high school (Alnassar, 2007). In their high school language classes, students do not learn how to write, but instead they study written language in terms of literature and formal grammar. In his study, Alnassar (2007) found that 86.2% of students attending King Saud University had not learned study skills including writing skills in high school that would help them succeed in college. Therefore, the importance of including writing skills as part of the national curriculum for high school students has been raised and is a concern of university faculty (Alnassar 2007). In addition to writing,

another concern that might arise if Ministry of Education were to writing skills in the national curriculum, is whether high school teachers would have the background needed to teach writing skills to students? A review of the literature has not found any research examining this issue in Saudi Arabia.

During my five years working as a teacher of Arabic language and supervising for pre-service teachers, I met many high school teachers. These teachers, and in particular science teachers, tend to believe that writing is only important for language and literature classes even though their science students could benefit from writing activities in their classes. Yet, studies show that it is important for middle and high school science curriculum to include writing argumentative text (W. P. Baker et al., 2008; Carter, 2007; Pratt & Pratt, 2004; Wallace, Hand, & Prain, 2004; Yager, 2004). Teachers may not be aware of the importance of writing because they weren't taught writing in school nor was it taught in their teacher education program. For example, after reviewing the pre-service education program at my university, Taibah University, I found that its pre-service teachers are not given any instructions regarding how to teach and use writing activities in content areas. Another reason explaining why some high school teachers do not use writing activities in their classrooms, especially science teachers, is that they do not have the time to devote to developing instruction based writing activities (Fulwiler, 2007; Kihara, Graham, & Hawken, 2009; Yore, Bisanz, & Hand, 2003). That is, for instruction to be effective, when science teachers require writing activities for their students, they should give students feedback on their ideas and their writing. Perhaps the extra time needed to respond to writing might overwhelm teachers

and demand too much of their time. In other words, many secondary school teachers do not have a clear conception of the unique demands of writing and reasoning in their subject area nor are they prepared to invest the time needed to teach the writing skills needed for their subject area. Studies also show that some teachers believe they are not qualified to teach students how to write, for example, in science (Galbraith & Torrance, 1999; Holliday, Yore, & Alvermann, 1994) . Further, secondary school teachers may not understand the unique demands of writing and reasoning for their content areas (Langer & Applebee, 1987).

Even though writing is so important as tool for students before coming to the college level, students in Saudi Arabia are not well prepared for the kinds of writing that they will need to succeed at college level even though most of them graduate from high school with a high GPA (Alnassar 2007). In fact, research shows that graduating from high school does not mean that a student is prepared to do college level work (Conley, 2008; Wagner, 2010). Adding to this is the fact that the assessments that institutions use to accept students do not measure the types of learning skills that students need to be successful in college (Conley, 2007; Wagner, 2010). For example, in Saudi Arabia, students are not measured regarding their ability to do research in order to determine if they ready for a higher academic level. Thus, a gap exists between what students learn high school and what they need for success when they enroll in undergraduate courses or even if they begin a career after high school. Along this line, Achieve (2009) asks,

Is ready for college and ready for work the same thing? With respect to the knowledge and skills in English and mathematics expected by employers and post-secondary faculty, the answer is yes. In the last decade, research conducted by Achieve as well as others shows a convergence in the expectations of employers and college in term of the knowledge and skills high schools grads need to be successful after high schools (p. 4).

In fact, failing at the college level does not mean students are not capable, but it could indicate that they do not have basic skills such as writing skills. Unfortunately, it is so difficult to change language curriculum at high school in order to prepare student for academic. However, it possible to prepare students in academic writing when they get to the university because the university level is more fixable. Consequently, how could the students be prepared in writing for their disciplines?

Reducing the gap between high school preparation and university expectations, especially for writing skills, has been raised at many universities in Saudi Arabia, with Taibah University as an example. To reduce this gap, I believe there are two ways to give students an opportunity to improve their writing skills for their disciplines (the foundation year and General classes).

The Foundation Year

First, most Saudi Arabia universities require students to take a foundation year of coursework for colleges before they take any courses at their desired college. However, the grades students earn and the courses they take during this year do not

counted toward their GPA or are included in their bachelor degree. That said, students take courses in math, science, languages, and technology, as well as English as a second language to improve their language proficiency. Unfortunately, at Taibah University, students do not take coursework that supports their writing skills even though writing is one of the most important skills students need and should be a focus during the foundation year because students will be evaluated based on their writing. Even though the foundation year was established less than ten years ago, some colleges, such as business, science and education colleges, dropped the foundation year from their programs because they think their students did not benefit from it. Likewise, the foundation year may be eliminated from the Taibah University. The major problem with the foundation year is that professors have not been given the guidance they need to prepare students to be success in college-level work.

General Language Classes

A second way to improve students' writing ability at the Taibah University is to require of all students to take Arabic 101 and 102 and English 101 and 102. Currently in those courses, students are taught in the same manner as is done in high school, which means students are not given any kind of writing. For those courses, Taibah University follows the British system of education for the English curriculum, where students are not required to take any composition classes. Therefore, students do not have the ability to write in different genres, which is not the case in the United States where students are required to take some composition classes (Chanock, 2003).

This means that they do not study language as skills that they will use inside and outside of their classes. In addition, students in those classes do not practice any kind of writing activities, such as writing summaries, journal papers, research papers, or lab reports. Consequently, students take academic classes unprepared to do general writing or writing for their discipline. Hence, professors spend time teaching students how to write instead of spending time teaching content. In order to solve this issue, the University needs to design a new writing program for each discipline to help their students for their fields. However, before designing the new program, it is important to let college professors and language teachers communicate and cooperate to help their students succeed in their classes. It is important to design a curriculum that focuses on students' writing needs for both languages, Arabic as first language and English as a second language.

Therefore, it is so important to survey professors to find out the degree of their concern about a new writing program in order to figure out the stage of their concern. Then workshops can be generated based on professors' stage of concern. The research will sight to answer following questions:

Research Questions

1. At what stage of concern do the professors at the Taibah University perceive preparing students for academic writing?
2. Are there significant differences in Stages of Concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics such as disciplines or languages?

Significance

This study aims to help Taibah University to prepare their students to write for their academic classes. Finding the stage of concern for professors will help to improve their concern stages by giving them some training and workshop about a new writing program for specific disciplines. Also, the findings of this study will help Taipah University to prepare their students to perform writing tasks in different academic disciplines. In other words, it will help the curriculum designer of General requirement language classes (Arabic 101,102 and English 101, 102) and the other professors from different disciplines to understand the nature of writing tasks required and students' needs to succeed at the college level. The study will represent the types and the nature of writing assignments found in different disciplines classes in order to design a language curriculum for specific academic purposes. Also, the study will show how professors from different disciplines are concerned differently about preparing students for their academic wiring.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Writing is one of the most important skills that students need to master for college level work. Therefore, students should be prepared with these skills before moving to the college level because they are required to write numerous papers that will be used for learning assessment (Bacha, 2003; Campbell & Campbell, 2002). Writing not only helps professors to assess students, but it also helps students to enhance their reading comprehension; this is because students' writing is formed based on what they have read. Therefore, this means that reading comprehension is a critical skill for college level success (Graham & Hebert, 2011). Reading comprehension is a complex process. In order to understand a text, the reader needs to recognize its words and access their meaning, the reader needs to activate related knowledge must be activated, and the reader needs to generate inferences as information is integrated during the time of reading (Knipper & Duggan, 2006). Thus, students' writing is affected by their reading and how they understand what they have read. In first section of this literature review the reading comprehension, the connection between reading and writing and the effects of writing on how students learn content will be discussed in order to illustrate its importance in preparing students for the writing they will do in their college classes.

Reading Comprehension

It is crucial to understand reading comprehension and how it develops because of how strongly it affects students' writing. The RAND Reading Study Group identified reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing

through involvement and interaction with written text (Snow, 2002). They list three elements that affect reading comprehension:

1. A reader who comprehends the text.
2. A text that is comprehended by the reader.
3. Activity, which is the processes of comprehension. (Snow, 2002).

The reader brings his or her knowledge, abilities, and experiences to the act of reading while reading the text. During time spent reading, the reader is doing activities such as determining purposes, processes, and consequences in order to comprehend the text.

Those three elements determine a phenomenon that happens within the larger sociocultural context that is shaped by the reader (see Figure1) (Snow, 2002).

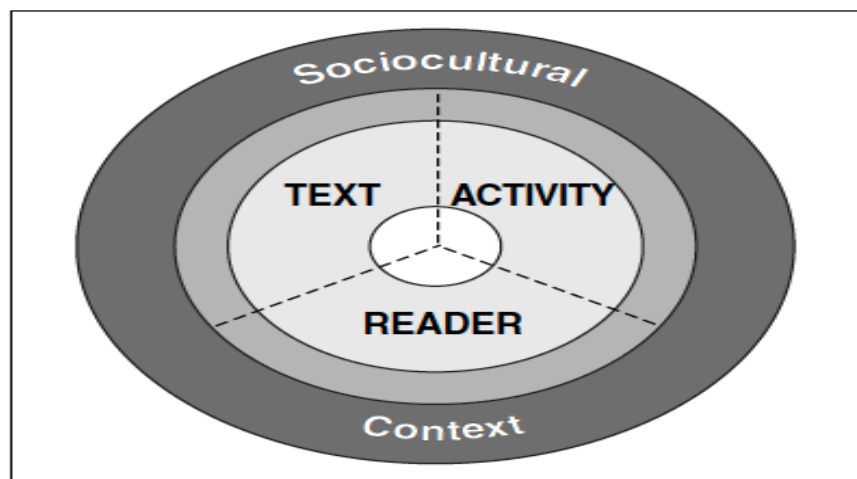


Figure 1: Rand Reading Study Group Heuristics

Reader, text, and activity are interrelated because the reader brings ideas to the text and then in turn takes ideas from the text. Therefore, it is important to distinguish between what the reader brings and then takes from the text during the processes of

reading. Reading comprehension is a macrodevelopmental aspect because it is not stable; it is changeable from time to time based on the reader's maturity, the developmental of reader's cognitive skills, and the reader's experiences (C. Snow, 2002).

The Reader

The reader is at the center of the processes of learning so that person must have particular cognitive abilities such as attention, memory, and critical analysis capabilities in order to comprehend the text and expand his or her knowledge. Motivation to read is another aspect that affects students' reading comprehension, which means that students benefit from receiving activities to improve their cognitive abilities and increase their motivation to read. C. Snow (2002) notes this, saying, "Thus, although teachers may focus their content area instruction on helping students understand the material, an important concurrent goal is helping students learn how to become self-regulated, active readers who have a variety of strategies to help them comprehend" (Snow, 2002, p. 14).

The Text

The features of the text have a large influence on students' comprehension. Readers might face different representations such as surface code, text bases, and representations of the mental models embedded in the text. (Snow, 2002). In addition, text can be easy or difficult to read based on a reader's ability. In fact, there are strong relationships between the types of text, knowledge, and reader's ability. For example, some content requires a high level of thinking (such as analysis, synthesis, and creativity) to understand the text, while other texts only need basic levels of thinking (such as

memorizing and applying). In fact, the knowledge about the text has a strong effect on a reader's comprehension because if the reader has no knowledge about what he or she reads, that person will have a difficult time understanding what was read. For example, when giving a student who has not read any chemistry text one to read, that student will have challenges in trying to understand it. Also, the level of vocabulary of the text might affect a reader's comprehension if it is difficult for him or her (Snow, 2002).

The Activity

Students read for a specific purpose, and activity refers to this dimension of reading. For example, readers might read to expand their knowledge or to complete a class assignment. They are expected to accept the information that they have read. RAND states how the purpose of reading could affect students' comprehension. For instance, if the purpose of reading a particular text comes from outside of the student, the student might compliantly accept the assignment; however, another possible reaction is that the student may not fully engage with the text because he or she does not see the purpose, which can lead to incomplete comprehension (C. Snow, 2002). Because classroom reading is often externally mandated, both possible responses to reading need to be anticipated by the teacher. It would be advised that teachers consider ways to help students see the relevance of the text in order to increase the likelihood that they will comprehend that text.

Based on the purposes of reading, a reader will process and find a level of comprehension. For example, if the reader only wants to find specific information, that person might skim the text to unearth what is wanted. However, if the purposes of

reading are summarizing the text and critiquing it, that person may need to read more carefully and use high processes of thinking in order to find that type of information (Snow, 2002). In addition, RAND believes consequences of reading are tied into aspects of the activity. For example, certain activities lead to increased reader's knowledge even though the purpose of reading could be either enjoyment or studying. Another purpose of reading is to figure out how to use or do something. The consequence for the reader is to know the application of how to undertake that action, such as repairing a car or install a dryer hose. This information all points to the idea that reading will have a purpose, although that purpose can have different levels of use; knowledge, application, and engagement can be viewed as direct consequences (Snow, 2002).

Barton et al.(2002) state that teaching reading through the content area is not only about teaching students basic reading skills, but it is also teaching students to use reading as a tool to think about their learning. As students move up from one grade to the next grade, their academic demands increase as well, and the greatest demand comes in the form of reading. The ability to comprehend a text in the content area is critical to students' academic success. When students move from level to level, the content becomes more challenging and more difficult. For example, when students graduate from high school and enroll for college classes, the texts that they are required to read will be more complex and difficult, so it is crucial to teach students strategies that might help them to understand what they read in the content area (Ness, 2007). Research clearly indicates that reading comprehension instruction is helpful for students at all levels (Collins, 1991; Deshler, Ellis, & Lenz, 1996; Schorzman & Cheek, 2004; C. E. Snow &

Biancarosa, 2004; Stevens, 2003). It is highly recommended to teach students explicit instruction in comprehension strategies in order to improve their reading comprehension (Panel, Health, & Development, 2000). The National Reading Panel (2000) states that "The idea behind explicit instruction of text comprehension is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific cognitive strategies or to reason strategically when they encounter barriers to comprehension when reading" (p. 4-39).

Research indicates that reading instruction in a specific area such as science (Barton, Heidema, & Jordan, 2002; Greenleaf & Schoenbach, 2004) or social studies (Mosborg, 2002; Perfetti, Britt, & Georgi, 1995) can help students to understand the concept of those areas and improve their reading comprehension.

Reading Comprehension as Metacognitive

Reading is key to learning as it helps students to improve their knowledge more effectively (Othman & Jaidi, 2012). In the context of learning at a university level, examining a students' reading process is necessary not only for the purpose of understanding the content but also to come up with inferences (Othman, 2010). When readers use metacognitive strategies during the reading process, they have to perform construction in term of awareness and control (Kuhn, 2000). Kuhn (2000) believes mature readers need to know the function of remembering and how knowledge can be related to the capacity to remember. Metacognitive is defined as cognition about cognition, which is the second level of cognition where a learner thinks about thinking, considers knowledge about knowledge, and reflects about actions (Papleontiou-louca, 2003). Louca (2003) also states that when cognition is associated with understanding,

remembering, and perceptions, metacognition involves thoughts that an individual has about the same areas of understanding, remembering, and perceptions. The reading process places emphasis on cognitive approaches, and readers are required to apply their cognitive ability in order to comprehend what they read. The reading process is not only reading the text word by word but also drawing meaning about what has been read and thinking about thinking while reading the text (Othman & Jaidi, 2012).

Comprehension also can be viewed as a process of constructing understanding of a text. Two important features go into comprehending a text. First, comprehending a text should be an active and intentional thinking process where the reader constructs the meaning (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Panel et al., 2000). Second, when readers comprehend the text, it is expected that that comprehensive will vary as of the result of their differing background knowledge and experiences. However, not all readers' interpretations of a text can be valid (Pressley, 2006). Therefore, it is important for the comprehension process to consider what readers bring to the text and the ideas that are conveyed through the text. Comprehension of a written text is a complex process of thinking within the reader that depends on the ability of the reader to identify words quickly, accurately, and effortlessly. It is also a factor that comes from the reader's background about the topic that he or she read (Adams, 1994). This indicates the importance of teaching students active reading strategies in order to be expert readers for their content area so that they can then master what they are required to read for their classes. Pressley (2006) believes that expert readers use a variety of consciously controlled strategies when they read difficult and complex texts. For example, expert

readers have a clear idea about the purpose of their reading, and they have the ability to activate their prior knowledge about the topic. Expert readers also have the ability to ask and answer questions about the topic they have read, and they can relate the information in the text to their understanding of the topic. In addition, expert readers make an appropriate summary and response to a text, and they can take useful notes from the text. Expert readers are self-regulated, and they are flexible enough to use different strategies during the meaning-making process (Pressley et al., 1992).

Being an expert reader and having the ability to use and activate strategies with flexibility does not develop easily with most students (Neufeld, 2005). Therefore, teachers need to explicitly introduce students to strategies and continue to share these ideas with their students until they master them in order for students to use those strategies in a flexible, coordinated, and self-regulated fashion when they read by themselves. Comprehension strategy instruction is mostly effective when it is taught within contexts where students apply strategies through actual text they are expected to read (Gambrell, Kapinus, & Wilson, 1987; Neufeld, 2005). Research indicates that by teaching students a variety of strategies while and after reading, their comprehension of complex texts can be improved (Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, 1997; Schuder, 1993). Teaching students those strategies through the phases of reading process has two major goals: first, to help readers to understand and memorize what they read, and second, to help them to monitor their comprehension and use strategies when breakdowns in understanding happen (Neufeld, 2005).

Writing is one tool that can be used to improve students' comprehension. For example, teaching students how to summarize what they have read has a positive impact on improving students' comprehension (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987; Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Berkowitz, 1986; Brown, 2002).

The Relationship between Reading and Writing

The relationship between reading and writing has been studied for long time (V. W. Berninger, Abbott, Abbott, Graham, & Richards, 2002; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Shanahan, MacArthur, Graham, & Fitzgerald, 2006). Also, it has been thought that reading and writing are separate processes from each other as reading is receptive and writing is productive (Tompkins, 1997). However, many studies indicate the connection between reading and writing, and they view these two activities as essentially similar processes of meaning construction (Robert J Tierney & Pearson, 1983). Reading comprehension can be improved through writing instruction (Graham & Hebert, 2011). Reading comprehension also can be enhanced when students write about texts, because reading and writing share a close and reciprocal relationship (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). Research shows how reading instruction also can improve students' writing skills (Graham, 2000; Krashen, 1989). It appears that because of the strong relationship between reading and writing, teachers could have both areas inform each other.

According to Fitzgerald & Shanahan (2000), research that studies the connections between reading and writing has been formed around three basic theories. The first theory is the rhetorical relations theory, which is based on the idea that reading and writing are communication skills, and readers and writers gain insight to communicate words by

receiving and sending (Nelson & Calfee, 1998). The second theory is the procedural connection approach (Slotte & Lonka, 1999). This theory views reading and writing as functional activities that can be combined to complete a goal. This theory illustrates how reading and writing could be used together within academic tasks. The third theory is the cognitive processes between reading writing (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). According to Fitzgerald and Shanahan (2000), reading and writing are constellations of a cognitive process that depend on knowledge representations at various linguistic levels (phonemic, orthographic, semantic, syntactic, pragmatic). Reading and writing are connected, according to such views, because they depend on identical or similar knowledge representations, cognitive processes, and contexts and contextual constraints. (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000, p. 39).

Thus, reading and writing are similar in the way they develop; they have a similar process, and they share common ideas and knowledge. Reading and writing are dependent on upon common cognitive substrate abilities such as visual, phonological, and semantic systems. In fact, anything that develops those abilities might have implications for both reading and writing (V. W. Berninger & Swanson, 1994; Shanahan et al., 2006). Therefore, some researchers state that common cognitive resources could be used for better teaching (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Graham & Hebert, 2011; Robert J Tierney & Pearson, 1983).

According to the theory of shared knowledge on reading and writing connections, reading and writing are not matching skills, but instead they rely on common knowledge and process (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). Reading and writing are dependent on upon

cognitive substrate abilities such as visual, phonological, and semantic systems.

Fitzgerald and Shanahan (2000) state that reading and writing share four common knowledge bases that readers and writers rely on. The first common knowledge is the domain of knowledge (content), which is the most obvious one (Flower & Hayes, 1984). Spivey (1997) explains how readers use the domain of knowledge with greater attention than writers. They think prior knowledge impacts reading comprehension to a greater extent with the content of knowledge in understanding the ability to remember, infer, and organize information. It seems cognition relies upon a single universe of substantive domain knowledge that might be drawn for variety functional purposes, including reading and writing (Shanahan et al., 2006). For example, when applying the basic processes of memory to reading and writing, the domain knowledge works as a type of generalizable substratum to both reading and writing (Shanahan et al., 2006).

The second common knowledge that connects reading and writing “refers to several subcategories of knowledge, including knowing about the functions and purposes of reading and writing; knowing that readers and writers interact; monitoring one’s own meaning-making” (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000, p. 40). Tierney and Shanahan (1991) explain how the processes of writing influence the processes of reading by providing readers insights into the intention of the writers, and how being a reader could help a writer to anticipate confusion and miscommunication.

The third common knowledge is the component of written language that might underlie reading and writing (Shanahan et al., 2006). Researchers found a high correlation between linguistic features in reading and writing in several areas, including

phonemic, orthographic, morphological, lexical, syntactic, and discourse features (V. W. Berninger, 2000; Shanahan, 1984; Shanahan & Lomax, 1986). Some studies note that spelling influences and could improve reading comprehension (V. W. Berninger et al., 2002; Shanahan, 1984). The last common knowledge where both reading and writing share knowledge is knowing how to use, access, and generate information while reading and writing. Also, it includes awareness of intentional strategies such as summarization, questioning, and prediction (Shanahan et al., 2006).

Because of that strong relationship between reading and writing, it needs to be mentioned that advanced readers and writers apply cognitive strategies for finishing their literacy tasks (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Researchers recommend that teachers provide explicit instruction to help readers and writers develop declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge of these cognitive strategies; thus, it is necessary to build students' metacognitive control of specific strategies (L. Baker & Brown, 1980; Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983). Block and Pressley (2002) state the agreement among scholars over 20 years of studies on comprehension strategies: this is that the scholars believe students should be taught cognitive processes that include modeling, scaffolding, guided practice, and independence in order to be self-regulated. Also, research recommends teaching reading and writing together because when they are taught together, students are more likely to apply a variety of cognitive strategies than if they are taught separately (R. J. Tierney & Shanahan, 1991).

In fact, anything that develops those abilities might have implications for both reading and writing (V. W. Berninger & Swanson, 1994; Shanahan et al., 2006). Thus,

instructions for improving writing might be improved both reading and writing. In their research, Neville and Searls (1991) found that when students learn how to construct complex sentences, they improve their understanding of the text. Graham and Hebert (2011) used meta-analysis to find the effect of writing on reading. They found that 94% of studies that they looked at indicate a positive effect in studies that looked at whether or not writing about material enhances reading comprehension, and this effect was statistically significant. In addition, they found twelve studies that indicated writing about reading has a positive influence on the comprehension of weaker readers and writers. As they continued their work, the researchers sought to find out if more writing improves reading comprehension. From the collection of studies that they examined, they found nine studies where this extra writing produces a positive effect.

Olson and Land studied the effect of writing in students' learning and reading by providing the Pathway Project. Over almost a decade (1996-2004), the Pathway Project provided an intensive professional- development program in order to help English Language Learner students improve essential academic literacy skills to succeed in their advanced educational settings. Students were asked to use cognitive strategies to reinforce the reading-writing connection. Students were enrolled in the 6th grade when they began in Transitional English Language Development and moved up to the 12th grade. Students were given explicit instructions intended to improve their academic literacy skills in order to succeed in college; in addition, it was believed that their college-acceptance rate would be improved. Teachers designed their reading and writing curriculum by using a cognitive strategies approach. Students cultivated deep knowledge

and applied those reading and writing strategies over time (Olson & Land, 2007).

Underwood and Pearson (2004) think the Pathway Project is designed to stimulate higher-order cognitive behavior of expert readers, as it considers the relationship between the social context and cognitive behavior.

Eventually, Olson and Land examined if reading and writing ability for English Language Learners in secondary school improved after they were provided with declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge with cognitive strategies through the Pathway Project program. They divided students into two groups; the first group was a control group without any intervention, and the second group was taught the Pathway Project program. The researchers tested both groups from 1996-2004 and compared them at the end of each grade. The results showed that students who received the intervention scored significantly higher than the students in the control group. Moreover, by the 9th grade, over 50% of the students who were in the Pathway Program were higher by at least one half score while the highest percentage of scores for control group range from 17% to 35% and never exceeded 50% at any level (Olson & Land, 2007). To conclude, teachers should use take advantage of the common processes that reading and writing share and build their curriculum based on those ideas in order to improve their students' literacy skills.

The Effect of Writing on Students' Learning

Writing activities are important not only to assess students' learning but also to help students to learn content at the K-12 and university level. Writing activities have been implemented at all educational levels from elementary through college (Audet,

Hickman, & Dobrynina, 1996; Beins, 1993; Rosaen, 1990). During the latter part of elementary school and through high school, students' writing increasingly becomes under control of metacognitive processes (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2013; V. W. Berninger & Swanson, 1994; V. Berninger, Whitaker, Feng, Swanson, & Abbott, 1996). When students write about content, they use a complicated process that requires them to connect their thinking to the content learned. Langer and Applebee (1987) believe that writing shapes thinking through the natural act of writing. However, some researchers believe that when writers are aware of their thinking during the writing process, they are better able to learn the content (Hebert, Simpson, & Graham, 2013). Bangert-Drowns, Hurley, and Wilkinson (2004) state that writers can make improvements in their learning because writers must apply metacognitive and self-regulation activities in order to write effectively. That is, students who are able to think about writing during the writing process will be able to plan, evaluate, and adapt the strategies that they use in order to organize their knowledge more than students who do not employ this method of thinking.

When students write, they learn from their writing because they create a text that includes ideas with relationships among them. In addition, when students are expected to write a text with a specific goal in mind, this method will help them to better understand relationships among ideas and then evaluate them in order to make new meaning from those ideas (Klein, 1999). Although Klein (1999) believes that writing produces a positive effect on learning, there are inconsistencies, and the reasons for the inconsistencies are unknown. However, Klein (1999) states four hypotheses about writing to learn: (a) writers generate knowledge, (b) writers express

ideas in text and then reread them in order to generate new inferences, (c) writers use genre structures to organize the relationship among ideas, and (d) writers set rhetorical goals.

In addition to the four hypotheses about writing to learn, Klein (1999) believes the writing processes can be explained through cognitive theory. First, writing creates knowledge by encouraging the writer to structure thinking. Therefore, the absence of an immediate audience encourages the writer to maximally expand and syntactically differentiate. Second, any written materials can be reviewed and compared with other texts or thought. When a writer reviews a text, he or she will transform the ideas and beliefs during the process of writing. Third, some types of writing require writers to make relationships among ideas, so when the writers read a text, they may shape how the knowledge is represented and relate the information to their perspective. For example, certain types of writing require writers to choose and defend a position to present assumptions and evidence to support those assumptions. All those activities provide writers with opportunities to think and reshape their knowledge about a topic. Fourth, writers must think about the knowledge and interests their audience brings to the task and generate rhetorical goals to provide accommodation for their audience. During the process of writing about content, writers may reread what they wrote and revise or change their ideas as they transform their knowledge and understanding of the topic (Klein, 1999).

Wang and Margaret's (1993) meta-analysis supports Klein's assumptions that metacognitive and cognitive factors affect learning and that writing is one tool that can

improve students learning. They also showed that a model of cognitive processes such as having students think about what they read in writing could help educators to design instructions and assignments. When teachers use writing as one tool for their students to learn, they have a clear plan of what they want to do and how to do it.

Studies indicate that writing activities can improve learning or create new learning opportunities because when students writes about a text, they needs to gather and organize information, which in turn enhances knowledge or understanding (Durst & Newell, 1989; Klein, 1999). Writing activities, such as answering questions, note-taking, writing a summary, and journal writing, not only can be assigned to assess students but also can be used to extend students' knowledge of content and improve content area learning (Bangert-Drowns et al., 2004; Graham & Perin, 2007a; Hebert et al., 2013). Based on the goal of learning and the different disciplines, writing activities can take many forms to help students to think critically about what they read and to construct new knowledge (Klein, 1999).

Writing activities can help students to learn content, and they can help students improve their comprehension on the content. Studies, for example, show that writing can improve students' comprehension in content areas such as science and history (Bangert-Drowns et al., 2004; Rivard, 1994; Wiley & Voss, 1999). When students write about content, they get a better understanding of the text they have read. A strong positive relationship exists between writing and reading comprehension, and writing activities are influences on reading comprehension. Graham and Hebert (2011) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the effect of writing on reading. In it, they

identified experimental studies that had a control group, where students only read the text and did not do any kind of writing activity, and a treatment group, where students wrote about the text through various activities such as summary writing, answering questions, and extended writing activities. The result shows that writing about the text improves students' comprehension as measured with both norm-referenced ($ES=.40$) and researcher-created ($ES=.51$) measures that assess students' comprehension of the texts. The measures of reading comprehension include multiple-choice questions, short answers essay questions, summarizing, and retelling orally or in writing what has been read. The researcher took the average of the outcomes of all those measures on the treatment groups. Graham and Hepert (2011) found that each writing activity (e.g., summary writing, generating and answering questions, note taking, and extended writing activities) was found to have a statistically significant effective on improving reading comprehension but with a different effect size. The effect size ranged from 0.27 for generating and answering questions to .77 for writing extended responses to a text.

When students read a text, they generate relations among all parts of a text and between texts and the writers' experiences (Wittrock & Alesandrini, 1990). Also, when teachers give students specific writing activities in response to reading, students will only think about the content of a text with the writing expectations in mind (Odell, 1980). However, all those writing activities can expand the students' comprehension of the text that they have read. This occurs because when students write about what they have read, they relate the content to their experiences and they therefore live with that

information causing their memories to be alive and active. Therefore, writing can become a powerful means for students to rethink, revise, and reform what they know (Durst & Newell, 1989; Langer & Applebee, 1987; Marshall, 1987; Newell, 1984).

When students comprehend the information that they have read, they can organize the information in their mind, but teachers cannot assess the students' comprehension until they students have a means of expressing that in order to see if they understand the content they have read about it. Writing is a useful skill to organize learning and is one of the most important tools to help teachers check their students' comprehension and memorization. Taylor and Beach (1984) found that memorizing a text is related to organizational skills in writing. Newell (1984) also compared note taking, answering questions, and writing essays, and she found that writing essays is the more effective means to assist high school students in integrating material that they have read.

Science content is one of the most important areas where students can expand their comprehension through specific types of writing activities. When students are given opportunities to use writing activities under a teacher's supervision, they will develop their understanding of the science content (Connolly & Vilardi, 1989; Prain, 2006; Saul, 2004; Wallace et al., 2004). In science classes, it is important to have students practice how to design and investigate data and then learn how to write in the expected scientific format (Carter, Ferzli, & Wiebe, 2007; Wallace et al., 2004; Yore et al., 2003) In fact, when students write, they describe their understanding of the content, theories, laws, concepts, and so on. For example, when students are given

opportunities to use writing activities such as reflection, justification, interpretation, and synthesis, they think about the content deeply (Connolly & Vilardi, 1989; Glynn & Muth, 1994; Hand, 2004; Yore et al., 2003). Moreover, the process of writing an argumentative text can help students improve their understanding of science.

However, many students fail to support their ideas and provide evidence about their ideas and argument when they are required to craft an argumentative text in science areas (Kelly & Bazerman, 2003; Kelly, Bazerman, Skukauskaite, & Prothero, 2009; Kelly, Regev, & Prothero, 2007). Consequently, students need to be taught academic writing across all academic classes including science content.

Research also shows that writing activities have a positive impact on students' learning in geography classes (Chappell, 2006; Dummer, Cook, Parker, Barrett, & Hull, 2008; Hooey & Bailey, 2005; McGuinness, 2009; Slinger-Friedman & Patterson, 2012; Thompson, Pilgrim, & Oliver, 2005). Writing is also important for geographers in its subareas as GIS, cognitive mapping, and mathematical modeling, so students need to be taught how to express their thoughts clearly through writing (Hooey & Bailey, 2005; McGuinness, 2009).

Preparing Students for Writing through K-12

Writing is important for students at all grade levels, beginning in elementary school until graduate levels. In addition, research has found that for each grade level, students can improve their learning through writing (Benson, 1991; Dillon, O'Brien, Moje, & Stewart, 1994; Fellows, 1994). Thus, for each grade, students should be required to do writing activities with different goals in mind and across content areas.

Researchers have offered teaching suggestions (Benson, 1991; Dillon et al., 1994; Ford, 1990; Jolley & Mitchell, 1990). In elementary school, for example, Fellows (1994) examined the effect of writing for sixth grade students on varied academic abilities, socioeconomic levels, and ethnicity over a twelve week science unit concerning states of matter. At the beginning of the study, students had a hard time accepting scientific conception. Afterward, Fellows (1994) found that when students wrote about the relationships among concepts, they produced better understanding at post-test levels than other clusters of students who were assigned with non-writing activities. It was clear how students grasped the scientific conception after writing about it: when students read the concept, they thought about how to write and summarize what they had read, so they had an understanding that allowed them summarize those ideas (Fellows, 1994).

Because of the importance of writing, Graham and Perin (2007b) believe writing should be taught with explicit instructions at K-12 to prepare students for college level. They think student who have difficulty with writing are not equipped to meet the requirements of college. Therefore, in their meta-analysis study, Graham and Perin (2007b) determined eleven elements for writing instruction that can be effective for helping students to learn writing and use writing as tool for learning:

1. Writing strategies that include planning, revising and editing for composition.
2. Summarization, where teachers should teach explicitly and systematically show students how to summarize texts.

3. Collaborative writing, where teachers ask students to work together to plan, draft, revise, and edit their writing.
4. Specific product goals, where students are assigned specific goal for writing to reach and complete.
5. Word-processing, where students use computers and word processors as instructional support for writing activities.
6. Sentence combining, where students are assigned to construct more complex, sophisticated sentences.
7. Prewriting, where students are encouraged to engage in activities to generate or organize ideas for their writing assignment.
8. Inquiry writing, where students analyze immediate, concrete data in order to help them to develop their ideas and content for a specific writing task.
9. Process writing approach, where students have a workshop environment in which they are given a number of writing instructional activities to stress extended writing chances, personalized instruction, writing for authentic audiences, and cycles of writing.
10. Study of models, in which students are provided with models of good writing in order to read, analyze and emulate.
11. Writing for content learning, where students use writing as a tool for learning the content.

Using Different Types of Activities

In most classes, students are assigned writing activities to help them develop their understanding of contents or to assess their knowledge of it. However, writing activities have different effects on students' comprehension based on the types of writing. Marshall (1987) claims that using different writing activities encourages students to think about texts differently. Langer and Applebee (1987) found that students think differently based on the type of writing activity for the text. When students were asked to answer short questions, they focused on specific ideas from the text; in contrast, when they took notes, they focused on large concepts presented across the text. Moreover, students who were asked to write an essay integrated ideas in text and engage in complex thoughts.

In their meta-analysis study, Hebert, Simpson, and Graham(2013) examined if particular writing activities have more effect than others in improving reading comprehension outcomes and if writing activities improve reading comprehension differentially based on how closely the reading comprehension measures were aligned with types of writing that students complete. The results indicate that after comparing summary writing and question answering, question answering and note-taking, summary writing and note-taking, and answering questions and extended writing on average outcomes, there is no evidence to support that one type of writing activity enhanced reading comprehension more than others. In addition, the researchers found that when comparing the effectiveness of different types of writing on specific measures, summary was statistically significant effective more than question answering comparison for free recall measures. The extended writing was statistically more effective than question answering for extended writing measures of reading comprehension. Langer and

Applebee (1987) believe that the effects of a specific type of writing on learning is depend on the purpose of assessment, as each type of writing guides students to focus on different information.

Horton, Frank, and Walton (1985) randomly assigned college students studying biology to one of two groups. The first group was assigned to write summaries of lectures during class sessions, while the second group was assigned to write summary notes during different lectures. The results showed that the students who wrote summaries of lectures during class sessions had greater comprehension of material in the post-test than the control group who were asked to write summary notes during a different lecture set. Another study conducted by McCrindle and Christensen (1995) divided first year biology students randomly into two groups. The first group was asked to do journal writing that included describing the content that they had learned and to reflect on process that they had been taught. The second group was assigned to write conventional laboratory reports. The results show that students who wrote journal entries earned higher scores than students who only wrote reports on their final multiple-choice content exam. While not all kinds of writing activities are appropriate for every class, one goal of this research is to identify the appropriate types of writing for each specific content area based on professors' perceptions. In short, I will conclude with this question, which might be answered in the next part: should we teach students writing for general or for academic purposes?

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or for English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The disciplinary literacy is the ability to read and write to learn subject matter in

a given discipline. The disciplinary literacy approach advocates to specialized knowledge and skills by creating, using knowledge within each of the disciplines.(Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012) That means school will focus on teaching writing and reading for specific purposes. In the most cases, students are prepared for general purposes, where students from different fields take the same language classes, and teachers do not focus on what students need for their discipline areas. For example, the English composition course might has some students from medical, engineering, education and so on. Engineering students, for example, will not be prepared how to write lap report, also, students from medical disciplinary will not be taught how to write health care plan. Teaching English for academic purposes only prepare students for general writing format (e.x summary, research paper, essays). Therefore, some educators advocated that students should be taught based to prepare them for their content areas instead of teaching students English for general purposes (EAP). In fact, at the university level students are required to take some general education classes and the other classes are on their disciplines. The disciplinary literacy is focused on preparing how to think, communicate, read and write in their areas. Writing is one of the most important areas on literacy that students should be prepared on at the university level. The question here raised is should we focus only on what students need for their disciplines, or should it give them general types of writing? The debate over preparing students for writing for academic purposes has existed for a long time. The original of that debate was found in Horowitz's article (1986), where she argued that the instructors for language could focus realistically on what students need for the types of writing they are required to do.

Horowitz (1986) emphasized that students should learn what they need for each discipline, so English teachers should focus on teaching students and prepare them for their various disciplines. While Horowitz thought English teachers have the responsibility to focus only on what is needed for their discipline, Spack (1988), in contrast, thought students should be taught a variety of writing formats. He believed English teachers are not responsible for teaching students how to write for their disciplines, but they are only responsible for teaching students general academic writing. Johns and Swales (2002) agreed with Spack:

Finally, Spack (1988) is right, of course. We cannot prepare students for all eventualities in academic classrooms or in other situations (such as proposal defenses), nor do we understand other disciplines or other pedagogical practices well enough to give our students templates for success. What we can do, across the board, is raise students' awareness, give them a variety of experiences and exposures, encourage their analyses and critique of texts and contexts, and motivate them to see the university, like all institutions, as human and constructed, rigid, fluid, hegemonous and negotiable—all at the same time. (p. 26)

In contrast, some studies support Horowitz's idea and believed EAP courses should focus on students' needs. Reid (2001) states that EAP writing classes “should be thoughtfully designed to integrate immediate student needs with the hierarchy of institutional values, disciplinary goals, and professorial expectations” (Reid, 2001, p. 144). Similarly, Ferris and Hedgcock (2013) suggest that EAP teachers should prepare

their students to meet the demands and expectations of academic institutions. Leki and Carson (1997) point out that after comparing the writing that had been done in EAP courses and discipline courses, English teachers should prepare students for their disciplinary writing. In this same study, Leki and Carson (1997), claim that:

As English for academic purposes (EAP) writing instructors and writing curriculum planners, we need to know the degree to which ESL writing courses have been successful in gauging and providing for ESL students' writing needs across the university curriculum. However, making this determination is difficult because many academic writing requirements may be implicit in the curriculum of the disciplinary course and thus not amenable to ready description by the outsider. (p.81)

It is apparent that students are not benefiting from the teaching of general writing as much as teaching them writing for specific purposes of writing. (Wingate & Tribble, 2012) Wingate and Tribble (2012) argue that EAP courses neglect some fundamental issues: First, that learning to write in an academic discipline is not a purely linguistic matter that can be fixed outside the discipline, but involves an understanding of how knowledge in the discipline is presented, debated and constructed. The second issue is that reading, reasoning and writing in a specific discipline is difficult for native and non-native speakers, or, in other terms, home and international students alike. Therefore, a support provision that is reserved for non-native speakers of English, or as a remedy for students who are at risk of failing, is outdated for today's student generation. (p. 481-482)

This what is occurring at the Taibah University in its Arabic and English classes

where students are taught in their general language courses ENGL101, ENGL 102, ARAB101, and ARAB 102 pure linguistics instead of language for academic purposes. The purpose for EAP course is to teach students appropriate English in forms that are useful for those students in their academic fields (Belcher, 2006).

Researchers such as Leki and Carson (1994) believe ESL classes should focus on helping students get ready for writing assignments in courses across disciplines. Therefore, ESL courses should use actual student assignments in different content area in their ESL classrooms. Otherwise, students will confront challenges when they are required to write in ways that they are not taught when they were taking English classes.

Leki and Carson (1994) surveyed 77 nonnative-English speaking undergraduate students who were enrolled in core-required courses. The students needed to have taken either an EAP writing courses in a U.S Intensive English program or an ESL section of first-year composition, plus they had to be enrolled in a university course that required writing. Those students were asked how well they felt their EAP writing classes had prepared them for the writing they were required to do in their content courses. The results showed that 48% felt that the EAP courses prepared them very well and 35% felt they were prepared well, while 17% felt that the EAP courses had not prepared them well at all. The researchers noted that even though the majority of the students felt they had been well prepared in their EAP writing courses for general writing, they expressed frustration that the EAP writing courses had not prepared them well for their specific discipline. Therefore, it is important to ask students who have finished EAP writing courses who encounter writing in their academic classes how well prepared they are.

Similarity, in their research, Bacha and Bahous (2008) found that students and faculty in a business school believe that the skills and tasks students are taught in the English classrooms often might not relate to their majors.

In cognate fields such as nursing and midwifery, students are required to do different types of writing (Gimenez, 2008). This kind of diversity might be challenge for students (Leki, 2007). In the midwifery and nursing fields, students at undergraduate level are expected to have a high level of writing skills before starting their program (Lillis & Turner 2001). However, Leki (2003) in her study on the literacy experiences of nursing students found that most students consider writing difficult and confusing because the College of Nursing did not officially require any specific amount of writing in any of its courses even though faculty considered writing important for their classes. Some studies show that English classes have paid little attention to writing genres in the health care sector (Candlin & Candlin, 2003; Leki, 2003; Whitehead, 2002). Leki (2003) had done a case study of international undergraduate students focused on literacy experiences in her nursing major. Her report looked at the importance of writing in the major, which was nursing, the types of writing assignment, and the challenges that students faced. Even though one particular student in the case study, Yang, did excellent work in her English courses and got a high TOFEL score, she struggled with written genres in her major. In her first semester, one of her professors returned her paper and indicated that it was not acceptable as written; as that was the only paper for the whole semester, Yang was anxious and afraid of dismissing from the program because she did not know how to write in her specific discipline. The types of writing that students are

required to do in their professional lives, such as clinical writing, are not traditionally taught in English courses. Even though Yang could write very well in her history, philosophy, and other traditional writing areas, she failed when writing clinical reports because she did not receive training for writing in her major. (Leki, 2003) It is clearly important that academic writing in higher education becomes more discipline specific (Gimenez, 2008). Many studies indicate that English courses cannot be separated from the rest of the disciplines any more. It is also important to ensure that students are initiated into their academic fields by not only acquiring language proficiency but also preparation for specific genres pertaining to their specific disciplines (Bacha, 2003; Canagarajah, 2002; Duff, 2001; Johns, 2001; Mukattash, 2003; Zhu, 2004). Writing across the disciplines approach gives students an opportunity to improve their language skills so that they can do the academic writing in the format that they need. Each discipline required types of writing that students should familiar with in order to succeed (Archer, 2008; Bacha, 2003; Cheng, 2006; Hyland, 2007; Jordan, 2002; Leki, 2003). Studies show that professors across disciplines want students to think and use writing as expected by professionals in their fields (Chiseri-Strater, 1991; Currie, 1993; Walvoord, McCarthy, & Robison, 1990). Hyland (2013) interviewed 20 teachers from four discipline areas at a medium-sized English university in Hong Kong in order to explore their reception to feedback that would illuminate their students' experiences with disciplinary writing. Hyland (2013) found that the teachers hope to see students write in disciplinary approved ways. Marsella, Hilgers, and McLaren (1992) claimed that students master their writing based on previous writing experiences, so it is appropriate to design a

writing course that include a variety of writing experiences. Prior (2013) also believed that teaching students writing tasks that might be assigned for students across the curriculum was a reasonable means to foster students' attitudes toward writing assignments. Spack (1988) argued that EAP teachers are not qualified to teach and prepare students for specific discipline tasks because they were not prepared for that. Freedman (1993) also confirmed Spacks's initial argument by pointing out that it is a risk to ask EAP instructors teaching discipline-specific because those EAP teachers do not have the ability to cover those specific tasks. Spacks (1988) believed EAP teachers are not prepared to teach students for their disciplines, so if those teachers are given an opportunity to teach students for their areas, they will not do it perfectly and students might be confused. In addition, the EAP teachers who are not members of these professions believed they are not qualified to help students to think and write in those specific fields, such as in engineering (Chiseri-Strater, 1991; Currie, 1993; Walvoord et al., 1990). For example, if students need to be prepared for writing in chemistry courses, the EAP should know how to teach lab reports and other specific writing formats for this science class. In her study (Bacha, 2012) found that while students believe help should come first from their discipline teachers before English teachers in order to finish their assignment, the disciplinary teachers believe that help should come from English teachers and that they are not responsible to teach students how to write (Bacha, 2012). If this is so, EAP instructors should have the ability to teach writing outside of their own field of expertise. A recent study by Wardle (2009) shows that many writing tasks and feedback in EAP classes fail to help students understand the connections between genre features

and the possibilities for creating meaning in different fields. It appears EAP teachers at universities are confronting complex instructional contexts where they need to teach students to write outside of their language classes (Hyland & Bondi, 2006). It remains debatable who should teach those tasks, English teachers or disciplinary teachers, as the answer does not have a definite consensus (Hyland, 2002; Johns, 1988; Spack, 1988). Spack (1988) believes EAP writing teachers might not help students prepare for a specific profession, which means it is appropriate to get teachers from each field to prepare students to write for their disciplines. Other researchers such as Horowitz (1986) believe it is the responsibility of the EAP teachers. Added to this debate, recent studies suggest that there should be collaboration between English teachers and disciplinary teachers in order to design instruction that will help students improve specific-discipline writing (Belcher, 2006; Hyland, 2007; Johns, 2008). Bacha (2012) investigated how a program was designed for teaching ESP through collaboration between English instructors and discipline faculty. The results show that the students significantly improved in language proficiency and ESP (Creese, 2000; Haynes, 2002; Johns & Swales, 2002; Jones, Turner, & Street, 1999).

Bacha and Bahous (2008) looked at business and English instructors who worked together in order to teach students English for specific purposes, and they found that 45.9% of the faculty and 54.1% of the students agree that the responsibility of teaching writing lies with both the English and business faculty. This indicates that programs can be developed to bridge the gap between English classes and disciplinary fields by giving EAP teachers and disciplinary teachers opportunities to work as a team, as “both the

English and disciplinary teachers, they do acknowledge that English and disciplinary teachers have different competencies, and thus the former may not be the ones to teach research papers, laboratory reports and so forth specific to the concerned discipline”(Bacha & Bahous, 2008, p. 234).

It appears that collaboration between EAP teachers and faculty from other disciplines is important in order for students to succeed; otherwise, students will not be prepared for academic writing. Bernhardt (1985) expressed the concern that occurs when isolation exists between EAP teachers and teachers from other disciplines, and it is applicable today.

After all, how can we expect students to write well after they leave our introductory composition courses if they are not expected to do much writing in their other courses? We know that it takes practice to sustain writing skills, and we suspect that students simply do not get much practice. We assume that other faculty members avoid assigning writing because it is time-consuming to grade; multiple choice and true–false tests can be scored so much more easily and reliably. We feel like lonely defenders of literacy losing the battle because we lack support from our colleagues in other departments. (p.1)

Writing through Disciplines

If the writing tasks in disciplines that students are required to complete are determined from surveys, interviews, and text analyses, studying those might lead to a better understanding of each fields’ writing requirements and how to address them in the curriculum (Basturkmen, 1998; Belcher, 2006; Leki & Carson, 1994; Zhu, 2004). Huang

(2010) states that

If we, as curriculum designers, materials writers, and teachers, intend to put the learner at the center of the learning experience, our duty is to offer targeted, varied workshops that meet their individual and discipline-specific needs. An ongoing questioning of learners' needs helps instructors begin their instruction where the learners are and the knowledge gained will enable instructors to prioritize what they teach. (p. 535)

This indicates that it is important to investigate the faculty perception's about students' proficiency levels and the important types of writing for their majors. Zhu (2004) states that "An examination of content course professors' views on academic writing and writing instruction could shed light on some of the beliefs underlying writing practices and instruction in content courses, which in turn could provide useful information for academic literacy instruction in the EAP context"(p. 32).

Each specific discipline has different writing formats required for their students; students might or might not encounter this information before they enter courses for that discipline. The following studies illustrate how each discipline has similar or different writing formats for graduate or undergraduate students. Some studies examine wide fields while others examine the types of writing for specific disciplines. Cooper and Bikowski (2007) looked at the writing tasks in graduate courses at a large American university. The researchers investigated writing assignments across the curriculum in order to draw implications for EAP curriculum design. To do that, the researchers analyzed 200 course

syllabi from 20 different academic departments. The researchers found that the most commonly assigned writing task was a library research paper, used in 38% of all courses. The next most common writing tasks were reports on experiments (20%) and book reviews (18%). They also found that professors assigned proposals 12% of the time and summaries 11% of the time. Essays and journal article were assigned 7% of the time and annotated bibliographies 4% of the time. In discipline categories, the researchers indicated that professors in the social sciences, arts, and humanities required a wider variety of writing than did professors in the sciences, math, and engineering. Johnson, Yurchisin, and Bean (2003) surveyed faculty in different academic departments in 34 universities. Faculty members were asked to indicate how many times they assigned students specific types of writing each semester. The study found that lab reports were assigned at least once per semester for the first year in most graduates department, while it was rare for the undergraduate students to have lab reports in their first year. In addition, exams with essay questions were common for both graduate students and undergraduate students except in electrical engineering, which rarely used essay exams. Case studies were a common task for MBA programs, where 75 of the departments required students to write at least three case studies each semester.

Bacha reported on the needs of writing across the disciplines at a university in Lebanon from both teachers and their students' perspectives. She surveyed 40 teachers and 257 students about what they need for writing in their discipline. They listed essays, essay test, letters, reports, research papers, lecture summaries, lecture note taking, and Internet note taking. The sample came from the disciplines of biology, computer science,

science, education, English, art, and psychology. The results showed that all disciplines indicate a high frequency of use of research papers and note taking while only art showed a higher mean frequency of essays. Also, the study showed that the education and biology fields were required to write more research papers and reports. The results also indicate that while education, psychology, and English are require more essays and essay tests, pharmacy and biology require more reports. Bacha (2012) asked students where they received support for their writing. In 35% of the replies, students mentioned that they did not receive any help to overcome problems they faced, while 20% received help from their friends. Also, 22% of the students indicated that they received help from the course teachers, while only 18% received help from English teachers (Bacha, 2012).

Bernhardt (1985) investigated the perception of faculties and students about writing across curriculum for undergraduates at the College of Liberal Arts Council of Southern Illinois University. The result indicate that descriptions, letters, case studies, and research reports were important for students at the undergraduate university level, and they should be prepared to succeed at university level with this writing.

In research conducted for business fields, Zhu (2004) categorized the writing assignments required in undergraduate and graduate business courses. The data includes 95 course syllabi and handouts on writing assignments and student writing, plus interviews with six business faculty members. The results show that students are required to write in both general academic and discipline specific genres. Moreover, the researcher categorized the types of assignments into ten categories: case analysis, article/book report, business report, business proposal, design project, library research, reflection

paper, letters and memos, research proposal/paper, and miscellaneous, which includes the assignments that does not fit under the nine categories. The results showed that undergraduates had 88 types of writings; the most common types of writing required in the business courses were case analysis 25%, article/book reports 15%, and business proposals 13 %. However, the least common types of writing that professors assigned for undergraduate courses were design projects, at less than 1%, library research less than 1%, reflection papers less than 1%, and research proposal/papers at less than 1%. Graduate students, in contrast, the students were required to write more than undergraduate students. The most common types of assignments were case analysis 33%, article/book reports 23%, and business proposals 12%. The types of writing that professors assigned the least often overall were reflection papers at less than 1% and research proposal/paper at less than 1% (Zhu, 2004). Bacha (2008) surveyed 157 students and 37 faculty members to determine the type of writing required in their business courses. The types of writing were essay assignments, essay test, letters, reports, research papers, summary of lectures, note-taking in class, and note-taking from the Internet. The results indicate that students perceived a higher frequency than faculty did for all types of writing except writing reports. Students and faculty agree that research papers are a very important genre for business majors. The faculty did not say that essay writing was important for their fields, and because they use multiple-choice items to test their students, they do not see essay tests as being that important for their field. In addition, they did not indicate that letters and summary of lectures are important for their students to learn. However, both students and faculty agree that note taking in class and note taking from the Internet are very

important for their majors. The research also indicate that 46% of the faculty and 54% of students agree that English and business faculty are responsible for teaching those types of writing (Bacha & Bahous, 2008). Gimenez (2008) examined the specific written genres for pre-registration nursing and midwifery; 135 students participated in the study, of whom 68 were nursing students and 67 were midwifery students. The participants were divided into level 1, level 2, and level 3 of writing rather than years of study. These divisions based on writing level were because each level has different difficulties and the written genres change from level to another. For example, while students at level one are required to describe, outline, or summarize, at level two students are expected to write critical analysis instead of description. The students were asked to view academic writing in their program, how frequently those types of writing are required, how difficult they found these genres to be, and what they did before, during, and after writing. The results showed that the most common types of writing for nursing and midwifery programs are care critiques, case studies, care plans, article reviews, portfolios, reflective essays, discharge summaries, and argumentative essays. The study found that the reflective essay was the most challenging type of writing for nursing students, as noted by Gimenez (2008), "The reflective essay is reported as the most challenging task for nursing students, probably because they are asked to produce their first reflective piece at the beginning of the program" (p.157). In addition, 72 % of the nursing students found that article reviews were difficult to write, while 80% of midwifery students found that argumentative essays were the most difficult writing task. Gimenez concludes with this statement: "One of the main implications from this study is the clear need for academic

writing in higher education to become more discipline-specific. Students' responses to the questionnaire and their comments in the focus groups point to the fact that there is little value in teaching them genres they may never be required to produce such as the 'general' academic essay." (p.162)

The previous literature review recommends that collaboration between professors from different disciplines with language instructors is very effectiveness in term of designing a writing program for a specific discipline and teaching that program. The question raises is that do professors concern about students' writing to prepare them through a new writing program?

Professors' concerns

One significance of this study is to encourage professors from different disciplines to collaborate with language instructors in order to design a writing program for a specific discipline. However, not all professors might be interested in developing students' writing in his or her field because some of them believe this is not their job to do. Also, they might think students should come to their classes prepared with the types of writing that their classes require. Also, they might believe there is something else more important to consider than designing and teaching a new writing program for their disciplines. There are many issues that might be considered among professors regarding the new program. However, they might not have the same issues or concerns about students' writing. It is very important to find the stage of the professors' concerns in each discipline to find out how professors might react to a writing program for specific disciplines. Therefore, the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), will be used to

find out a professor's stage of concern about a program of teaching writing for specific discipline. The next section illustrates the Concern-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) with more details.

) The CBAM model has implication for practices of professional development acknowledged in order to support people in the face of change. In other words, the CBAM model can help educators, developers, and policy makers to determine teachers' concerns about an innovation in order to support them by attending a workshop (Hall & Hord, 1987). This model holds educators to consider and experience change and let them ask about an innovation and their use of whatever the change is. In addition, the stage of concern addresses how educators perceive an innovation and their feeling toward the innovation. In the late 1960s, the concept of concerns and the development of concern emerged by Fuller and her colleagues work at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas at Austin (Hall & Hord, 1987). In her research, Fuller (1969) focused on pre-service teachers to find out the discrepancy between educational activities and teachers' needs. Fuller hypothesized there are clusters of concerns that might be related to teachers and their teaching careers. In addition, those concerns might be changed as well as teachers gain more experience about their teaching (Fuller, 1969). Based on a theory of teacher concerns, Fuller and her colleagues identified four major clusters or phase impacts:

1. Unrelated Concerns: This phase expresses by pre-service teachers, who have a low involvement of teaching, and typically do not have specific concerns regarding an innovation.

2. Self Concerns: This phase appears when pre-service teachers approach the first experience field. At this phase pre-service teachers “start to feel potential inadequacy, self-doubts about the knowledge required, or uncertainty about the situation they are about to face.” (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 57)
3. Task Concerns: This phase occurs when teachers become more involved and more comfortable in the school setting and in the act of teaching. At this phase teachers are concerned about some issues such as "logistics, preparation of material, coordination, and scheduling." (Hall & Hord, 1987)
4. Impact Concerns: This phase occurs when teachers are concerned about how their teaching affects students and how they will improve their skills as teachers.

Fuller and her colleagues' concern theory is not only for pre-service teachers, but also can be used for all teachers, principals and educators are engaged in an innovation (Hall & Hord, 1987). In addition, several studies showed that the change process phenomenon is not only peculiar to beginning and more experienced teachers, but that it is a phenomenon common to all educators as they encounter change, new experiences, and new demands (Evans & Chauvin, 1993). George and his colleagues pursued Fuller's concern theory and set common concern about any innovation. The researchers identified seven Stages of Concern (SoC) that can be used to identify teachers' concern about an innovation (George et al., 2006). The SoC has seven stages: awareness, informational, personal, management, consequence, collaboration, and refocusing concerns. Table 1 includes the typical expressions of the seven Stages of Concern about how an innovation parallels with Fuller's concern theory.

Table 1:
Typical Expressions of Concern about an Innovation

Fuller's stages	Stages of Concern	Expressions of Concern
	Stage 6: Refocusing	I have some ideas about something that would work even better.
Impact	Stage 5: Collaboration	I am concerned about relating what I am doing with what my co-workers are doing.
	Stage 4: Consequence	How is my use affecting students?
Task	Stage 3: Management	I seem to be spending all of my time getting materials ready.
Self	Stage 2: Personal	How will using an innovation affect me?
	Stage 1: Informational	I would like to know more about the innovation.
Unrelated	Stage 0: Awareness	I am not concerned about the innovation

Source: George et al., 2006, p. 4.

Table 1 shows how Fuller's stages are parallel with the stage of concern. The stage of awareness, where a person is not concerned about the innovation, parallels the unrelated level. The informational and personal stages relate to self-concern, where a person wants to know more information about the innovation and how it might affect him or her. The third stage is equivalent to the task concerns, where a person is concerned about how to manage him or herself with the new innovation and how to prepare materials for the class. Ultimately, the three subsequent stages of consequence, collaboration and refocusing constitute impact level. At this level a teacher is concerned about the effectiveness of a new innovation in his or her students, concerned about

collaboration with other faculty, and has ideas to improve an innovation. Table 2, gives more details about characteristics of each Stage of Concern about an innovation.

Designing and teaching a writing program for a specific discipline might not succeed if the professors are not interested or have no idea about the program and its goals. Therefore, it is very important to find their stage of concerns about the new program. Hall et al (1975) state that “In education our approach to change is to add things. Whenever there is a problem, the cure is to add something; process curricula, new organizational structures, more time, more training, more controls. We have added so many cure-alls that the pile of unused and “ineffective” remedies has become an obstacle. Our focus on changing by adding thing and our failure to be sensitive to the changes that individual must make to use these thing have become the problem”(p. 2).

Table 2:
The Stages of Concern about an Innovation

Fuller's Stages of Concern	CBAM's Stages of Concern	Expressions of Concern
	6 Refocusing	Teachers evaluate the innovation and make suggestions for continued improvements, or consider alternate ideas that would work even better.
Impact	5 Collaboration	Teachers are interested in relating what they are doing to what their colleagues are doing.
	4 Consequence	Teacher concerns now center upon effects on student learning. If positive effects are observed, teachers are likely to continue to work for the implementation.
Task	3 Management	Concerns begin to concentrate on methods for managing the innovation within the classroom. Teachers now express concern over the organization and details of implementation, and the overcoming of difficulties. Time requirements are among the prime management factors, which create skepticism on the part of teachers in relation to the adoption of innovations.

Self	2	Personal	Teachers focus on the impact the innovation will have on them. At this point, they exhibit concerns about how the use of the innovation will affect them on a personal level. They may be concerned about their own time limitations and the changes they will be expected to make.
	1	Informational	Teachers express concerns regarding the nature of the innovation and the requirements for its implementation. At this stage, teachers usually show their willingness to learn more about the specific innovation or reform.
Unrelated	0	Awareness	Teachers have little knowledge of the innovation and have no interest in taking any action.

Source: (Christou, Eliophotou-Menon, & Philippou, 2004, pp. 160-161).

According to table 2, each concern of stage has different characteristics to identify. When a person has little concern about or involvement with the innovation, he or she will be at the stage of 0 Awareness, while when a person has a general awareness of the innovation, but would like to know more, he or she will be at stage 1 Informational. At the stage of 2 Personal, a person is uncertain about demands of innovation, and is not sure if he or she could meet those demands. This stage “includes analysis of his/her role in relation to the reward structure of the organization, decision-making, and consideration of potential conflicts with existing structures or personal commitment.” (Hall & Hord, 2006, p. 140) The two components are in the self area, while the stage of 3 Management under the task area, where a person processes the tasks of using innovation and the best information and resources to use. Also, at this stage efficiency, organizing, managing, scheduling, and time demands are conceded. The rest

of the last three represent the impact concerns, which are more complex. In the stage 4 Consequence, a person faces increasing effectiveness and impact in the use of the innovation, while at the Stage 5 Collaboration, a person focuses on concern about dealing and working with his or her colleagues. Finally, at Stage 6 Refocusing shows that a person has some ideas about a more effective alternative program more than an innovation.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods and procedures that were used to conduct this study. The study was designed to investigate the perceptions of professors from different disciplines at Taibah University regarding undergraduate students' writing. In addition, the study aimed to examine the role of the field of teaching, language, gender, and academic qualification. This chapter provides in detail the following sections: (a) Population and Sampling; (b) Instrumentation; (c) Research Design; (e) Data Analysis; and Research Procedures:

Research Design

This study is a descriptive study in nature using the quantitative method to collect and analyze the data for this study. The aim of this study is to identify the stage of concern of professors in Taibah University if the new writing program is implemented. Stage of concern has seven stages: (stage 0) awareness, (stage 1) informational, (stage 2) personal, (stage 3) management, (stage 4) consequence, (stage 5) collaboration, and (stage 6) refocusing. In addition, for each stage of concern, individuals will be determined as to how they will be challenged when the new writing program is implemented. This study also examined the potential presence of significant differences in professor' concerns across gender, years of experience, qualifications, language which they use to teach and assign students to write with, and field of discipline.

The researcher examined the relationship between five independent variables and the seven dependent variables, which are the seven stages of concern. Gender was

expected to differ among the professors at Taibah University. At Taibah University, courses might be taught in the Arabic or English language, so it was very important to ascertain if the professors concerned implementing the new writing program differently. Also, qualifications (bachelor, master, or doctorate) might affect the professors' stages of concern. Teaching experience was one of the most important variables that might affect professors' stage of concern. The population was divided into three fields of discipline in order to determine if there was any differences among those fields:

- Humanities and Social science (Languages, education, social sciences, Islamic studies, law, family science and media)
- Natural and applied sciences (mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, engineering, computer, finance and administration)
- Medical and Applied Medical Sciences (medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, medical rehabilitation, laboratories, nursing)

Thus, the following research questions guided the study:

1. At what stage of concern do the professors at Taibah University perceive preparing students for academic writing ?
2. Are there significant differences in stages of concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics such as disciplines or languages?

Population and Sample

The target population of this study is professors at Taibah University from different disciplines. There are 20 colleges at Taibah University, and the researcher will divide all disciplines into three categories (humanities and social science, science and

medical). There are approximately 1,289 professors. All professors got an email that asks them to participate in the study.

Table 3: Population Characters

Field of Discipline	Gender	N	Return
Medical and Applied Medical Sciences	Male	215	13%
	Female	145	13%
Natural and Applied Sciences	Male	290	14%
	Female	127	20%
Humanities and Social Sciences	Male	313	32%
	Female	199	32%

Instrumentation

Instrument will be used to collect data and answer the research questions. The instrument has two parts:

1. General information questionnaire: In this part, five items that were designed to gather information with respect to personal and professional characteristics of participants. The five items addressed: (a) gender; language used for teaching (Arabic or English); academic discipline (humanities and social science, finance and administration, science and medical); academic qualification (bachelor, master or doctorate); and teaching experience (0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years or 20 years and above).
2. Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ): In order to identify professors

concerns toward preparing students to write for their disciplines at Taibah University , a Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) , which relies on the theoretical framework of one of the CBAM dimensions, will be used to measure professors responses. The SoCO would also help to determine if there are significant differences in the Stage of Concern among professors across languages (Arabic and English) and discipline categories. The SoCO has 35 items that are divided equally into seven scales (see Appendix I), and the high scores indicate that participants show intensified concerns towards an innovation, which is preparing students to write for their discipline. The participants are asked to state their opinion for each item on an eight-point Likert scale that ranges from 0 to 7. 0 means that “the statement is irrelevant to me,” 1 and 2 mean that “the statement is not true of me now,” 3 to 5 mean that “the statement is somewhat true of me now,” and 6 and 7 mean that “the statement is very true of me now.” The SoCQ included introductory language that explains the questionnaire and how to complete it. The instrument has 35 items using a Likert scale. In the original survey, the word “innovation” is used and it is recommended to change it to the word that has been used for the current research (George et al., 2006). For this reason, the word “Writing Program” was used instead of “innovation.” (Appendix C)

CBAM developers determined the reliability and validity of the original version of the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ). (see Appendix C) The Alpha coefficients estimate the internal consistency for the seven stages ranged from .64 to .83. (George et al.,2006). The test-retest correlations ranged from .65 to .86. The SoCQ is a valid questionnaire and has been used and reported on extensively in the literature

review. The developers of this questionnaire illustrate several validity studies that state that the SoCQ is an accurate measurement for the hypothesized Stages of Concern.

Since the Stages of Concern Questionnaire was originally developed in English and intended to be administered to professors who speak Arabic, the researcher translated the (SoCQ) into the Arabic language and measured its validity and reliability. In terms of validity, the researcher translated the (SoCQ) into the Arabic language (see Appendix D) by asking an expert in both languages, and then translated it from Arabic to English (see Appendix E) and compared the original and the new English version (see Appendix F) in order to conduct and confirm content, construct, and cultural validity arguments. Then, the original version and Arabic version were given to three experts in both languages to confirm the translation. For reliability, the Arabic version was given to a discussion group (consisting of five Arabic students) in order to obtain more insight from their experience in completing the Arabic version of the Stages of Concern Questionnaire. The group spent 15 minutes discussing the instrument and concluded that the survey was very clear.

The Arabic version was conducted for a pilot study. The survey was given to a sample of 25 professors who are similar to the target population. In terms of reliability for the Arabic version, the internal consistency estimates of reliability (Coefficient Alphas) for the seven Stages of Concern will be measured to find out its reliability. Table (1) shows the reliability each stage. The reliability coefficients for the seven stages ranged from .69 to .93. Four stages were measured to be above .8, two above .7 and only one stage at .69. The researcher confirmed that the final Arabic version was very well

written and was ready to publish to the target population.(see Appendices G for Arabic and Appendices H for English)

Table 4:

Items Reliability

Subscale	Items	Reliability Coefficients
Awareness	5 Items	$\alpha = .87$
Informational	5 Items	$\alpha = .76$
Personal	5 Items	$\alpha = .82$
Management	5 Items	$\alpha = .69$
Consequence	5 Items	$\alpha = .93$
Collaboration	5 Items	$\alpha = .85$
Refocusing	5 Items	$\alpha = .78$

Data Analysis

This study is descriptive in nature and employ quantitative methods for data collection and analysis. Descriptive statistics will be used to describe the study sample on the basis of gender, qualifications, years of experience, field of disciplines, languages, and types of writing for each discipline. In order to answer the first research question, “At what stage of concern do the professors at Taibah University perceive preparing students for academic writing?” The percentile scores were used to find the answer to this question. (see Appendix J) In order to answer the second question, “Are there significant differences in Stages of Concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics

such as disciplines or languages?” a $2 \times 3 \times 5 \times 2 \times 3$ (gender, qualification, years of experience, language and field of disciplines) between-subjects factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) will be used.

MANOVA was preferred to be used in a stead of series ANOVAs. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is an ANOVA with several dependent variables that have been examined between groups. In other words, by using MANOVA the researchers obtained a multivariate F value (Wilks' λ) based on a comparison of the error variance/covariance matrix and the effect variance/covariance matrix instead of a univariate F value. The researcher examined the main effects of gender, qualifications, years of experience, language, field of disciplines, and their interactions. These main effects and their interactions were examined at .05 level of significant ($p=.05$). The multivariate eta square (η^2), the multivariate effect size associated with Wilks' lambda statistic (Λ), was used to determine the amount of the relationship between the factor and the dependent variable. Because several dependent and independent statistical tests were conducted simultaneously, the Bonferroni correction was used in order to avoid Type I error.

Procedures

In order to conduct the study, approval from the Institutional Review Board at the University of Kansas was obtained before contacting any of the research participants. (see Appendix A) Then, a letter was sent to Taibah University for their permission to conduct the research among their faculty members. After a short period, the researcher obtained permission from the University of Taibah to conduct the research among all

faculty members. The electronic Arabic survey was sent through institutional email to all faculty members. This survey was designed through Qualdric Survey tool. The survey contained a letter of introduction and the instrument. (see Appendices G for Arabic & Appendices H for English)

Chapter 4: Results

The sample of this study includes a total of 278 participants from Taibah University. Table (5) shows some demographic information about the sample and some other factors, which are included in this research. Thirty-nine percent of this sample was female while 61% was male. While 60% of the sample reported that they used the Arabic language as the main language for their teaching, 40% of the participants used English as the main language for their teaching. Fourteen percent of the sample had only a bachelor's degree as the highest degree, while 38% of the participants had a master's degree and 48% held a doctorate as their highest degree. While 59% of the sample were from humanities and social science disciplines, 24% and 17% were sampled from natural and applied sciences and medical and applied medical sciences, respectively. More than half of the participants report their teaching experience from 0-5 years. There was no missing data because the researcher forced all participants to answer all questions through Qualtrics Survey tool.

Table 5:
Major Demographic for Participants

Demographic	N	Percentage
Gender		
Female	107	39%
Male	169	61%
Language of Teaching		

Arabic	166	60%
English	110	40%

Qualifications

Bachelor	39	14%
Master	104	38%
Doctorate	133	48%

Field of Disciplines

Humanities and Social Sciences	163	59%
Natural and Applied Sciences	65	24%
Medical and Applied Medical Sciences	48	17%

Teaching Experience (Years)

0-5 Years	154	56%
6-10 Years	42	15%
11-15 Years	31	11%
16-20 Years	22	8%
20 or more	27	10%

At what stage of concern do the professors at Taibah University perceive preparing students for academic writing?

The professors' responses to the Stage of Concern toward teaching writing for academic purposes were analyzed and grouped by gender, language, field of disciplines and years of teaching of experience. The rows scored were converted to percentiles in order to have meaning for each score. The authors of CBAM recommend against averaging percentile scores because when averaging the raw scores, the extreme values will influence the results more than might be appropriate while using the raw scores for the statistical analysis. Therefore, the proper procedure is to average the raw scores for each Stage of Concern and refer to that average to percentile score table (see Appendices J). In the following tables and graphics, the results are presented across different profiles such as gender, language, field of disciplines and teaching experiences.

Table 6:
Overall Percentile Scores of Professors' Concerns

Stages of Concern s	0 Unconcerned	1 Information	2 Personal	3 Management	4 Consequence	5 Collaboration	6 Refocusing
Overall	73%	82%	79%	63%	63%	67%	64%

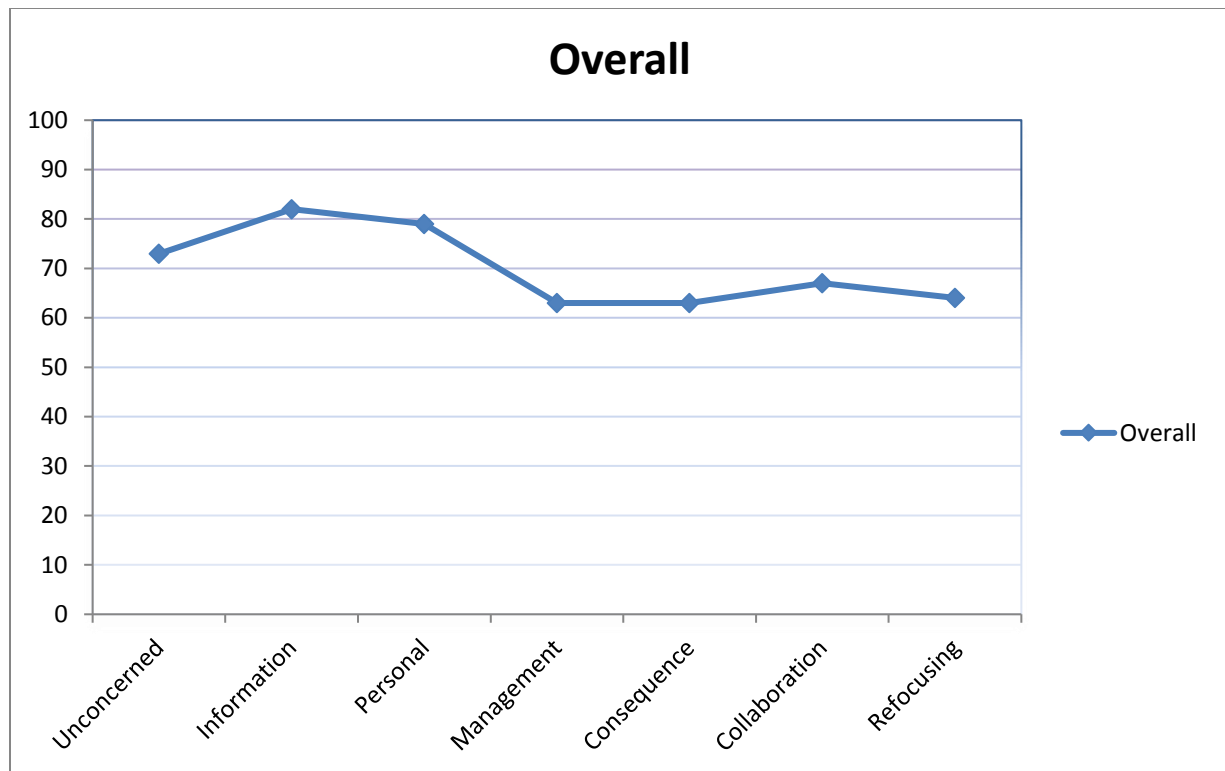


Figure 2:Professors' Group Profiles

According to Table (6) Figure 2, the professors at Taibah University Stage 0- Unconcerned score was 73%. This stage provides an indication of the degree of priority the respondent placed on the innovation and relative intensity of concern about it. However, Stage 0-Unconcern does not give any information if the individual is a user or nonuser. The group score at this stage showed that the group was fully aware of the writing program and somewhat more concerned about other things (Stage 0). According to the participants' profile, professors had the highest scores at Stage1 (Informational) 82%. The highest score at stage 1 indicated that professors had a general awareness of the writing program and were interested about it. Also, the results showed that professors had

the second highest score at Stage 2 (Personal) 79%, which indicated that professors were uncertain about the demand of the writing program, their adequacy to meet those demands, and their role within the writing program. In addition, the participants gave high scores in both Stages 1 and 2, which illustrates that the group is interested in learning more about the writing program. Because the group scored distinctly higher in Stage 1 than Stage 2, the group probably has a positive, proactive perspective with little fear of the personal effects a specified innovation might have, which is the writing program in this case. According to George et.al (2006) “That is a “positive one–two” split. This person is open to and interested in learning more about the innovation”(p. 25). In fact, the results show that the participants profiles do not have a significant concern about stage 2 (Management). That told the researchers that the professors did not have significant issues that related to the organization, time, and scheduling of the writing program. According to Table (6) and Figure (2), Stage 4 (Consequences) received the lowest score on the professors profile. This low score (63%) points out that professors were not focused on the writing program’s impact on students. Also, the results showed professors at Stage 5 (Collaboration) scored low with 67%. This score signals that professors were concerned about coordinating with their colleagues to implement the writing program effectively. The Stage 6 (Refocusing), the professors scored a low score of 63%. According to figure 2 the last stage was tailing down. The tailing down in this stage indicated that professors did not have ideas that would potentially compete with the writing program.

Stage of Concern Profiles According to Gender

According to Figure (3) and Table (7) professors across gender, whether male or female, scored highest in Stage 1 (Informational) and the second peak for both is Stage 2 (personal). Those results indicate that male or female professors are interested in having more information about the innovation, but they are uncertain about the requirements of this new program. In fact, professors (male or female) also scored high at Stage 0 (Unconcerned), which indicated that professors are not thinking about this program and they are working on other projects. However, the results showed that females were concerned about the program's consequences (Stage 4) on students more than Stage 3 (Management). While male professors scored more in Stage 3 than Stage 4, which exemplifies that male professors were more concerned about their schedule and time when working in the program, than their concern about the program's impact on students (Consequence). Both groups profiles showed low scores in Stage 5 (Collaboration), which indicated that they were concern about working with their colleagues in order to work in the new program. In the last stage, Stage 6 (Refocusing), for both profiles the tails were down, which indicated that professors in both groups had no other ideas better about this project.

Table 7:
Percentile scores of professors' concerns Based on Gender

Stages of Concern	0 Unconcerned	1 Information	2 Personal	3 Management	4 Consequence	5 Collaboration	6 Refocusing
Female	73%	83%	82%	61%	63%	68%	63%

Male	72%	81%	77%	64%	62%	66%	65%
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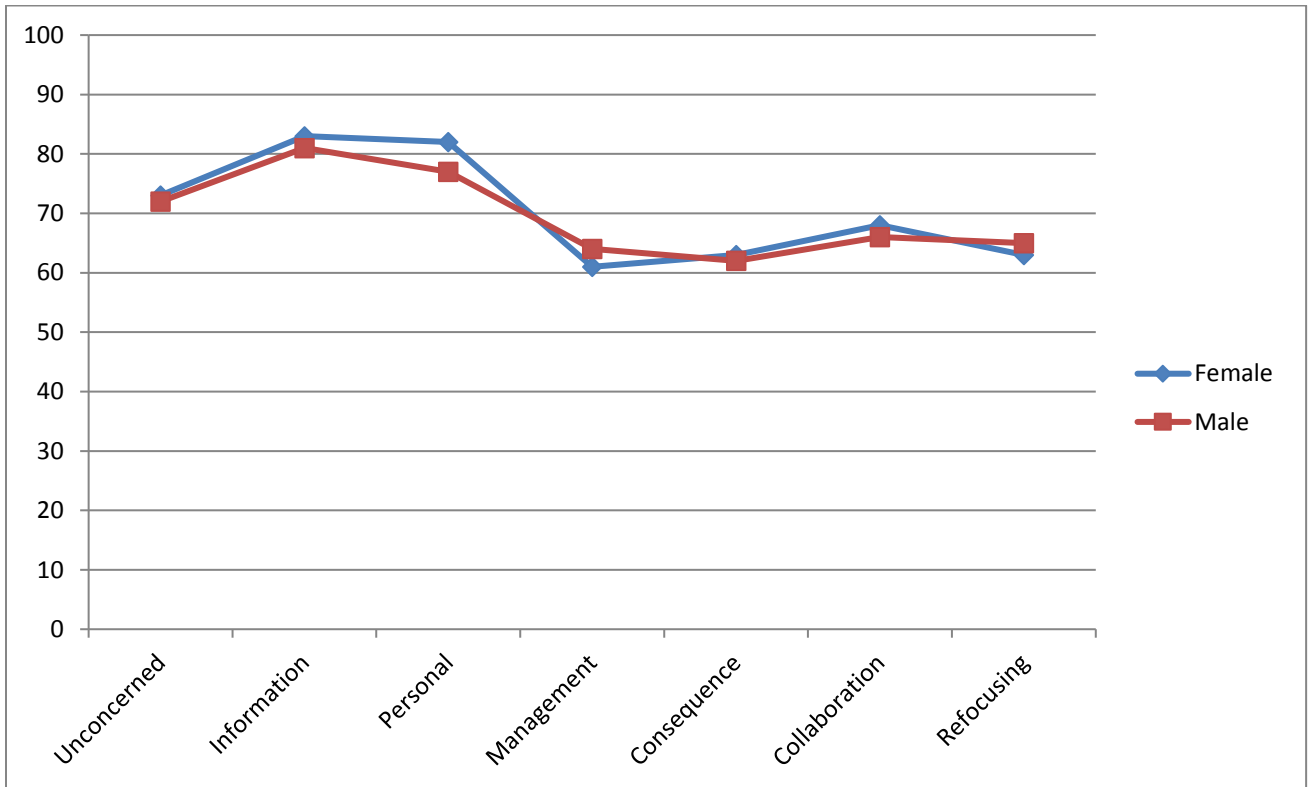


Figure 3: Professors' Group Profiles Based on Gender

Stage of Concern Profiles According to Language of Teaching

According to Table (8) and Figure (4), professors based on the language they use for their teaching, both groups of professors profiles, whether they are using Arabic or English, scored highest in Stage 1 (Informational) and the second peak for both groups is

Stage 2 (personal). These results indicated that professors are interested in having more information about the new program, but they are uncertain about the requirements . In fact, professors (Arabic or English) also scored high at Stage 0 (Unconcerned), which indicated that professors are not considering this innovation and are working on other activities. However, the results showed that professors profiles who are teaching in Arabic are concerned about the innovation's consequences (Stage 4) on students more than Stage 3 (Management) while professor who are teaching in English scored in Stage 3 more than Stage 4,.This shows that professors who are using English as a main language for their teaching had high concerns about their schedule and time when working in the program, more than their concern about the innovation's impact on students (Consequence). Both groups' profiles showed low scores in Stage 5 (Collaboration), which indicated that they were concerned about working with their colleagues in order to work in the program. The last Stage 6 (Refocusing), for both profiles the tails were down, which indicated that professors in both profiles had no other ideas for something better than this program.

Table 8:
Percentile Scores of Professors' Concerns Based on Language of Teaching

Stages of Concerns	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Unconcerned	Information	Personal	Management	Consequence	Collaboration	Refocusing
Arabic	72%	80%	78%	61%	62%	67%	65%
English	74%	84%	80%	66%	64%	67%	63%

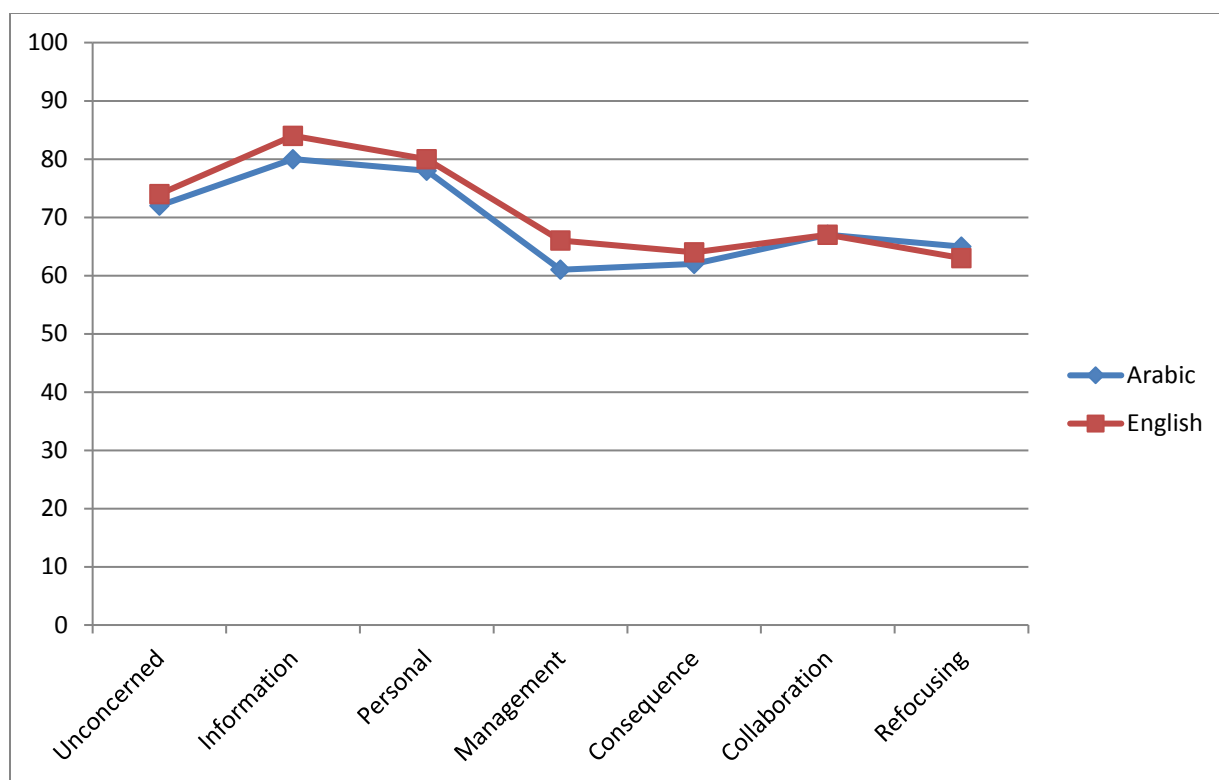


Figure 4:
Professors' Group Profiles Based on Language of Teaching

Stage of Concern Profiles According to Qualifications

When professors qualifications were considered as a main factor within the data analysis, the three profiles (bachelor, master and doctorate) scored high on Stage 1 (Information) and then Stage 1 (personal). Professors with bachelor's and doctorate degrees scored higher on stage 3 (Management) than Stage 4 (Consequence), which explains they are contemplating the effect of the program on their time its effect on their students. However, professors with a master's degree are concerned about the consequences of the initiative on their students. Professor who had a doctorate scored higher in Stage 5 (Collaboration) than the previous two Stages (Management and

Consequence), which illustrates that professors with a doctorate are willing to collaborate with colleagues from their university or other universities in order to apply the innovative program. On the other hand, professors with bachelor and master degrees scored low in Stage 5 (Collaboration). For all three professor profiles, Stage 6 (Refocusing) tailed down, which indicated that professors of all three profiles had no other ideas to better this program.(see table 9 and Figure 5)

Table 9:
Percentile scores of professors' concerns Based on Qualification

Stages of Concerns	0 Unconcerned	1 Information	2 Personal	3 Management	4 Consequence	5 Collaboration	6 Refocusing
Bachelor	76%	83%	79%	64%	58%	62%	56%
Master	75%	81%	78%	63%	66%	65%	64%
Doctorate	69%	82%	79%	62%	61%	69%	66%

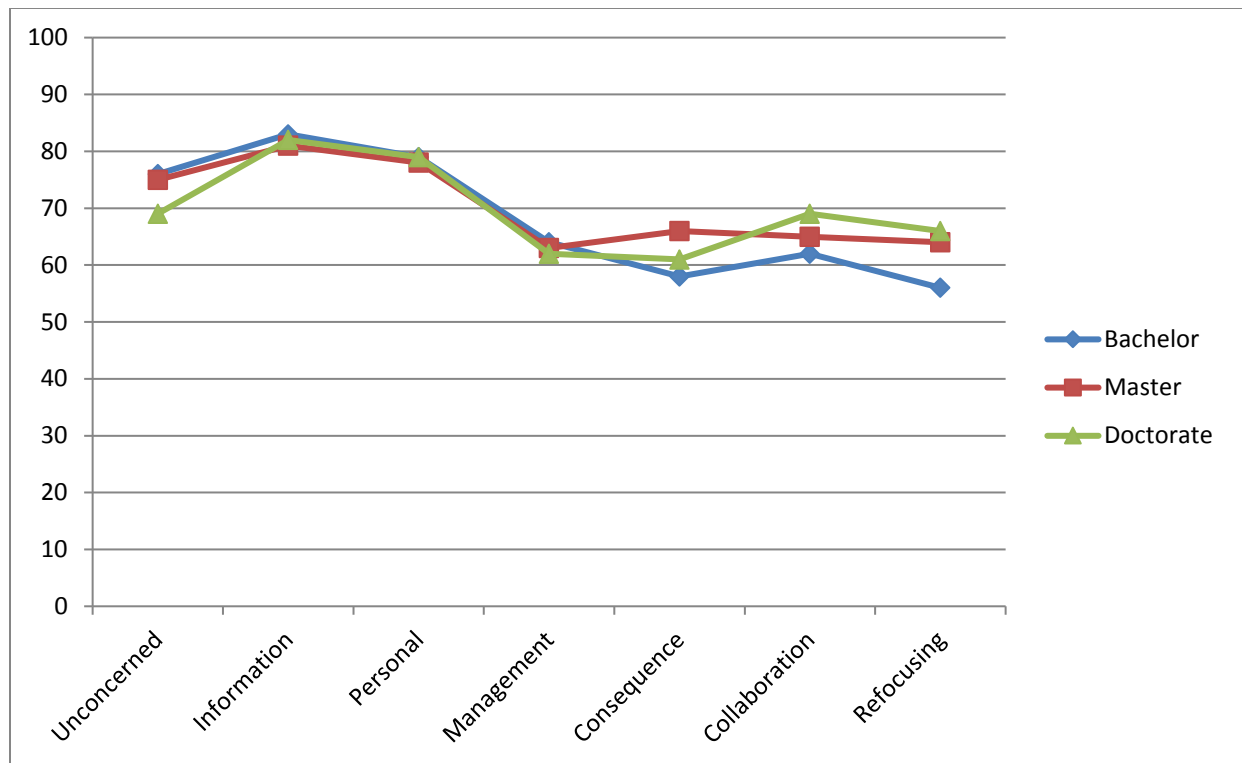


Figure 5: Professors' Group Profiles Based on Qualification

The Stage of Concern Profiles According to Field Disciplines

The professors' concerns across field disciplines were considered a main effect. The three profiles shared similar concerns in Stage 1 (Information), Stage 2 (Personal) and Stage 0 (Unconcerned), perspectives. Professors from the humanities and social sciences reported higher scores in Stage 5 (Collaboration) and then Stage 6 (Refocusing) and reported lower scores on Stage 4 (Consequence) and Stage 3 (Management). The profile of professors in the field of natural and applied sciences scored fourth highest fourth peak for Stage 3 (Management) and then tallied the same score on Stage 5 (Collaboration) and Stage 6 (Refocusing). In their profile, professors in

natural and applied sciences had Stage 3 (Management) as the last stage, which means they are less concerned about their time while working in the program. The profile of professors in medicine and applied medical sciences had high scores in Stage 5 (Collaboration) and Stage 4 (Consequence) While they showed less concern in Stage 3 (Management) and Stage 6 (Refocusing) which indicated that professors from this field, like all other profiles, had no idea how to improve the program. (see Table 10 and Figure 6)

Table 10:
Percentile scores of professors' concerns Based on Field of Disciplines

Stages of Concerns	0 Unconcerned	1 Information	2 Personal	3 Management	4 Consequence	5 Collaboration	6 Refocusing
Humanities and Social Sciences	72	81	79	63	64	70	67
Natural and Applied Sciences	73	79	74	63	57	59	59
Medical and Applied Medical Sciences	76	85	82	63	65	69	61

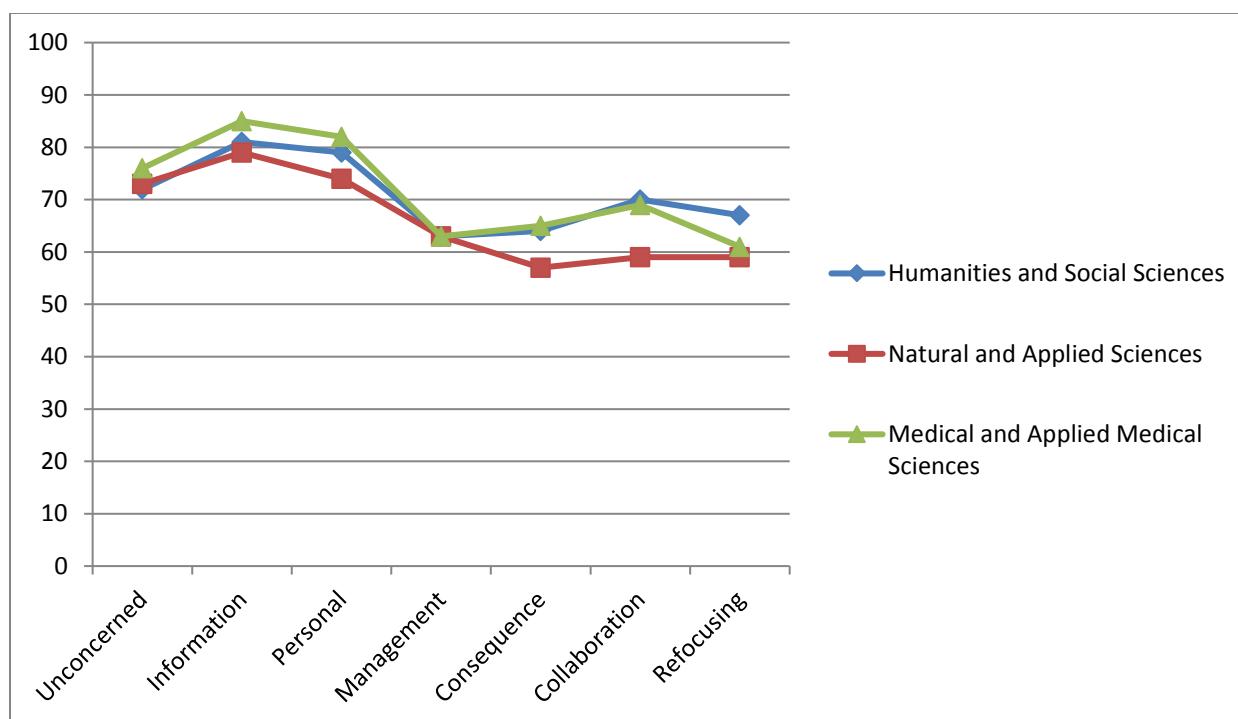


Figure 6: Professors' Group Profiles Based on Field of Disciplines

Stage of Concern Profiles According to Teaching Experience

Professor profiles across teaching experiences share similar concerns in Stage 1 (Informational) and Stage 2 (Personal). Professors across categories of teaching experience scored high on Stage 1 (Information) and then Stage 1 (personal), but they were at different levels on the other stages. The profile of new professors (0-5 years) showed a high score in Stage 0 (Unconcerned), which indicated that novice professors had other issues to think about more than the program. Also, new professors received the same score on stage 3 (Management) and stage 5 (Collaboration), which indicated that these professors were concerned about their time and schedule and were less concerned about collaborating with other faculty in the program. Also, Stage 4 (Consequences) and

Stage 6 (Refocusing), respectively, showed that new professors were less concerned about the effectiveness of the program and they had no other ideas for improving the innovative program. The profile of professors who had experience from 6-10 years, scored high in Stage 5 (Collaboration), which indicated that these professors were willing to work with other faculty regarding the program. Professors with teaching experience of 6-10 years derived moderate scores on Stage 4 (Consequence) and Stage 6 (Refocusing), which showed that they were concerned about the impact of the new program on their students and they might have other recommendations to improve it.. In addition, professor profiles showed the lowest scores in Stage 0 (Unconcerned) and Stage 3 (Management), respectively, which indicated professors with experience of 6-10 years were thinking about the program, and they had no issue managing their time and schedules if they worked in the program. Those professors who had experience from 6-10 years scored high in Stage 5 (Collaboration), which indicated that they were willing to work with other faculty regarding the program. Professors with teaching experience of 11-15 years garnered moderate scores on Stage 5 (Collaboration), Stage 0 (Unconcerned), Stage 3 (Management) and Stage 6 (Refocusing) , which indicated that professors were concerned about collaboration with other professors, and they had some ideas to help improve the program, and they were concerned about the it. In fact, this profile showed that the professors were less concerned about the impact of the program on their students. The profile of professors who had experiences from 16-20 years and 21 years or more, shared similar concern in Stage 5 (Collaboration), Stage 6 (Refocusing), and Stage 4 (Consequences), which indicated that professors were willing

to work with other faculty regarding the program and on methods to improve it.. In addition, the professors profiles showed the lowest scores in Stage 0 (Unconcerned) and Stage 3 (Management), which explained that professors with experience of 16-20 and 21 years or more were interested in the program, and had no issues organizing their time if they worked in the program. (see Table 11 and Figure 7)

Table 11:
Percentile Scores of Professors' Concerns Based on Teaching Experience

Stages of Concerns	0 Unconcerned	1 Information	2 Personal	3 Management	4 Consequence	5 Collaboration	6 Refocusing
0-5 Years	79	83	80	64	62	64	62
6-10 Years	64	78	78	60	65	68	65
11-15 Years	63	79	76	62	59	65	62
16-20 Years	63	80	75	54	63	78	70
21 or more	68	86	78	66	64	71	69

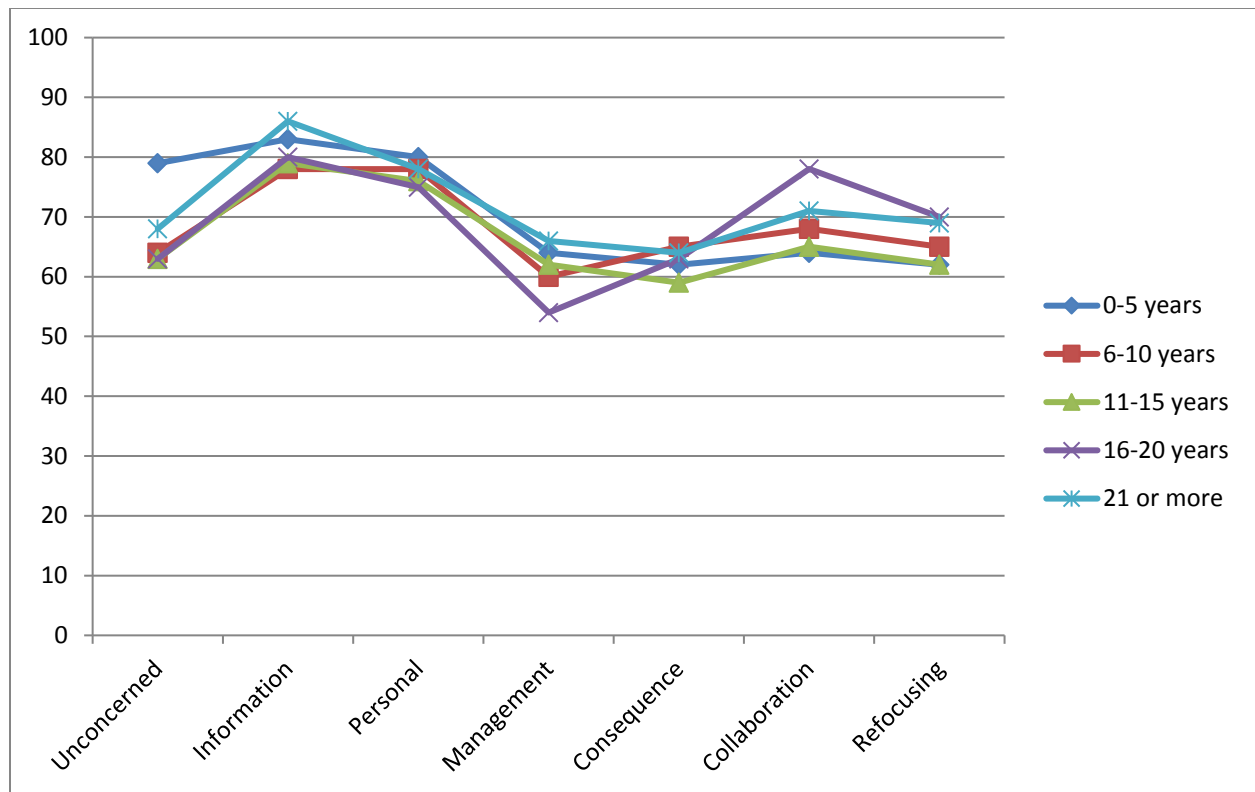


Figure 7: Professors' Group Profiles Based on Teaching Experience

Are there significant differences in Stages of Concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics such as disciplines or languages?

A 2 (gender: male and female)*2 (language of teaching: Arabic and English)*3 (qualifications: bachelor, master and doctorate)*3 (field of disciplines: humanities and social science, natural and applied sciences and medical and applied medical sciences)*3 (teaching experience: 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and 21 or more) between –subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on six dependent variables: Awareness, Informational, Personal, Management, Consequence, Collaboration, and Refocusing. The assumptions of normality, linearity, and multicollinearity were satisfactory. Levene's homogeneity of variance test was

statistically significant for Awareness ($p=.039$), Informational ($p=.041$), Personal ($p=.033$), Consequences ($p=.001$), Collaboration ($p=.001$), and Refocusing ($p=.018$).

Using Wilk's criterion (Λ) as the omnibus test statistic, the combined dependent variables were not statistically significant for all factors; gender, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.943$, $F(7, 185) = 1.588$, $p=.141$), language of teaching, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.944$, $F(7, 185) = 1.563$, $p=.149$), qualification, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.927$, $F(14, 370) = 1.018$, $p=.141$), field of disciplines, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.938$, $F(14, 370) = .856$, $p=.608$), and teaching experiences, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.817$, $F(28, 668) = 1.377$, $p=.094$). The results reflected very weak multivariate association between the combined dependent variables and gender (partial $\eta^2 = .057$), language of teaching (partial $\eta^2 = .056$), qualification (partial $\eta^2 = .037$), field of discipline (partial $\eta^2 = .031$) and teaching experience (partial $\eta^2 = .049$). In addition, the interactions among the independent variables were tested and showed no significant interaction among variables. Because the multivariate effects were not statistically significant, a group of analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were not needed to be conducted on each dependent variable. Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9 contain the means and standard deviations on the dependent variables for all independent variables.

Table 12:
Means and Standard Deviations on the Dependent Variables According to the Gender and Language of Teaching Factors

Gender		Language of Teaching	
Female	Male	Arabic	English

Dependent Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Awareness	15.53	7.47	15.23	7.52	15.39	7.87	15.27	6.92
Informational	24.36	7.05	23.44	7.88	23.13	8.21	24.80	6.40
Personal	25.07	7.21	22.91	8.27	23.53	8.45	24.06	7.10
Management	16.83	6.77	18.07	8.03	17.16	7.96	18.24	6.96
Consequence	26.766	8.12	26.25	8.68	26.10	8.99	26.96	7.58
Collaboration	25.54	8.50	24.64	9.42	24.90	9.42	25.11	8.57
Refocusing	19.94	7.57	20.78	7.66	20.71	7.69	20.06	7.54

Table 13:
Means and Standard Deviations on the Dependent Variables According to the
Qualifications Factor

Dependent Variables	Qualifications					
	Bachelor		Master		Doctorate	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Awareness	16.67	7.66	15.46	6.86	14.87	7.91
Informational	24.07	7.21	23.82	7.98	23.70	7.40
Personal	24.10	8.07	23.72	8.45	23.66	7.53
Management	18.15	8.22	17.68	7.88	17.35	7.20
Consequence	25.33	8.98	27.25	8.62	26.15	8.17
Collaboration	23.99	9.32	24.51	9.77	25.68	8.43
Refocusing	18.51	7.90	20.46	7.89	21.02	7.29

Table 14:
Means and Standard Deviations on the Dependent Variables according to the Field of
Disciplines Factor

	Field of Disciplines		
	Humanities and Social Sciences	Natural and Applied Sciences	Medical and Applied Medical Sciences

Dependent Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Awareness	15.17	7.71	15.06	7.00	16.33	7.42
Informational	23.75	7.67	22.99	8.13	25.08	6.35
Personal	24.08	7.91	21.97	8.86	25.02	6.30
Management	17.69	7.80	17.38	7.62	17.52	6.92
Consequence	26.89	8.30	24.61	9.81	27.44	6.60
Collaboration	25.80	8.72	22.69	10.04	25.35	8.53
Refocusing	21.33	7.26	18.89	8.49	19.60	7.31

Table 15:
Means and Standard Deviations on the Dependent Variables according to the Teaching of Experiences Factor

Dependent Variables	Teaching Experiences									
	0-5 Years		6-10 Years		11-15 Years		16-20 Years		20 or more	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Awareness	16.67	6.81	13.67	8.11	12.55	6.36	14.27	9.45	14.52	8.49
Informational	24.19	7.02	22.38	8.90	22.84	8.56	23.41	8.56	25.22	6.36
Personal	24.41	7.68	23.33	8.35	22.71	8.94	22.27	8.37	23.00	7.35
Management	18.07	7.20	17.12	9.54	17.07	6.74	15.09	7.77	18.22	7.13
Consequence	26.54	8.96	26.67	9.62	25.39	9.13	26.23	9.52	27.00	8.13
Collaboration	24.44	8.78	25.31	10.26	24.16	9.27	27.64	9.44	26.41	8.37
Refocusing	20.12	7.35	20.62	8.40	19.48	7.92	21.82	8.00	22.07	7.45

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter includes discussion of the findings for the two research questions and relates them to the literature review. Also, it offers some recommendations for further research. This study was designed to investigate the stages of concern and perceptions of professors at the University of Taibah in order to implement a writing program for specific purposes. It is known that writing activities are important not only to assess students' learning but also to help students learn content at the K-12 and university level. Writing activities have been implemented at all educational levels from elementary through college (Audet, Hickman, & Dobrynina, 1996; Beins, 1993; Rosaen, 1990). University faculty also indicated that writing is an important skill in terms of academic achievement (Bacha, 2003; Campbell & Campbell, 2002). However, the question was how should student writing be taught at the university level. While Spack (1988) believes EAP writing teachers might not help students prepare for a specific profession, it is appropriate to encourage teachers from all fields to prepare students to write for their disciplines. Some researchers believe that English teachers have the responsibility to focus only on what is needed for their discipline. Many studies indicate that English courses cannot be separated from other disciplines any more. It is also important to ensure that students are initiated into their academic fields by not only acquiring language proficiency but also preparing for specific genres pertaining to their specific disciplines (Bacha, 2003; Canagarajah, 2002; Duff, 2001; Johns, 2001; Mukattash, 2003; Zhu,

2004). Recent studies suggest that there should be collaboration between English teachers and disciplinary teachers in order to design instruction that will help students improve specific-discipline writing (Belcher, 2006; Hyland, 2007; Johns, 2008).

However, without consideration of the professors concerns about this issue, collaboration between professors will not exist. To carry out this specific task, the researcher investigated the following questions:

1. At what stage of concern do the professors at the Taibah University perceive preparing students for academic writing?
2. Are there significant differences in Stages of Concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics such as disciplines or languages?

At what stage of concern do the professors at the Taibah University perceive preparing students for academic writing?

Stage of Concern profiles for the whole sample (see figure 2, and table 5) address question 1. This profile gives a great deal of information about the current concerns of professors according to teaching a new writing program. The presence of successive high intense concerns at stage 0 (Awareness), stage 1 (Informational), and stage 2 (Personal) indicates that professors concerns about the writing program are self-centered. These self-concerns belong to a group of inexperienced users who have "feelings of potential inadequacy, self-doubts about the knowledge required, or uncertainty about the situation they are about to face" (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 57). The first stage 1 (Informational) indicates that professors demonstrate their willingness to acquire knowledge and skills that enable the writing program in their classroom teaching. The second highest stage 2

(Personal) indicates that professors have concerns about how the use of the writing program in teaching would affect them on a personal level. The third highest stage 0 (Awareness) indicates professors have little familiarity with the writing program and have just become aware of it. The fourth stage 5 (Collaboration) indicates that professors are willing to work with other faculty members within their departments or with other departments in order to obtain a clear understanding of the writing program. With the absence of peaking at stage 3 (Management), there is no obvious indication of progression from self to task concerns for professors, so their concerns about the program are still inclined to self-orientation. The score of stage 4 (Consequences) shows that professors have no concern regarding the influence of the writing program on student learning at this time. The last stage 6 (Refocusing) is tailing down which suggests professors have no other ideas about how to improve or better the program. The following section will discuss those stages in more detail:

Professors scored highest at Stage1 (Informational) 82%. The highest score at stage 1 indicated that professors had a general awareness of the writing program, were interested in learning more about it, and looking for more information. This stage indicated that professors have a general awareness of the program and interest in obtaining more information about it. Also, the high score in this innovation indicated that professors did not seem to be worried about themselves in relation to the program. It seems professors understand that writing is very important for their students to master (Andrews, 2003; Elander, Harrington, Norton, Robinson, & Reddy, 2006; Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Whitehead, 2002). Also, high scores in this stage

indicate that professors would like to discuss the possibility of using the writing program and how it differs from what they have today. Professors found that the university really has a serious problem among our undergraduate students that needs to be discussed because most of the students who are at the university level have not learned how to write at the college level.

Personal Stage

The professors who had the second highest score at Stage 1 (Personal) 79%, indicated that professors are uncertain about the demand of the writing program, their adequacy to meet those demands, and their role within the writing program. Also, they desire more information about who will make the decisions about the program, and how that may change their roles in teaching and administration. It is reasonable for professors to inquire about what changes will occur when the new program is implemented and the time and energy that is required for this program. It is very important for professors to understand the unique demands of writing and reasoning for their content areas (Langer & Applebee, 1987). Therefore, professors will put more effort on teaching the writing program for their field. Professors should learn that students in Saudi Arabia are not well prepared for the types of writing needed to succeed at a college level even though most of them graduated from high school with a high GPA (Alnassar 2007). In fact, research shows that graduating from high school does not mean that a student is prepared to undertake college level work (Conley, 2008; Wagner, 2010).

In fact, the developers of CBAM state that if the participants received a high score in both Stages 1 and 2, means the group is interested in learning more about the writing program. Because the group scored distinctly higher in Stage1 than Stage 2, the group probably has a positive, proactive perspective with little fear of the personal effects a specified writing program might have. According to George et.al (2006) “That is a “positive one–two” split. This person is open to and interested in learning more about the innovation.” It seems that professors know the issues that students are facing when coming to college and are willing to reduce the gap between high school preparation and university expectations, especially in writing skills. This issue has been raised at many universities in Saudi Arabia, and Taibah University is being used as an example.

Unconcerned

The Stage of Concerned that is ranked third, based on the professors profile, is Stage 0 (Unconcerned) where professors scores were 73% about teaching the writing program. This stage provides an indication of the degree of priority by the respondents on innovation and the relative intensity of concern about it. However, Stage 0-Unconcern does not give any information if the individual is a user or nonuser. The group score at this stage showed that the group was fully aware of the writing program and somewhat more concerned about other things (Stge 0). It seems they have other issues to consider other than the program and do not have time to think about it because of working on other innovations. It is very important to mention that professors are not

only required to teach but also required to conduct research in their field and fulfill other responsibilities toward their university and community.

Collaboration

Professors ranked fourth for Stage 5 (Collaboration). This score signals that professors were concerned about collaborating with their colleagues to implement the writing program effectively. It seems they are not willing to collaborate with other faculty members in order to implement this innovation. Without collaboration between the professors, especially professors from the English and Arabic departments with other faculty, the program will not have effectiveness. This program should be developed to bridge the gap between English classes and disciplinary fields by giving EAP teachers and disciplinary teachers opportunities to work as a team. Some researchers looked at business and English instructors who worked together in order to teach students English for specific purposes, and they found that 45.9% of the faculty and 54.1% of the students agree that the responsibility of teaching writing lies with both the English and business faculty (Bacha and Bahous 2008). Therefore, professors should be at high level of concern at the collaboration stage before implementing the program.

Management

Professors ranked Stage 3 (Management) fifth. The low score at this stage explained that professors did not have significant issues that were related to the organization, time commitment, and scheduling of the writing program. Also, it shows they did not have any conflict between their responsibilities and interests, and will not have any issue that is related to the time they might spend in the program. In fact, this

finding is different from what was found in other research especially for the professors who are in the science fields because the research showed that that they do not have the time to devote to developing instruction-based writing activities (Fulwiler, 2007; Kiuahara, Graham, & Hawken, 2009; Yore, Bisanz, & Hand, 2003). Thus, for instruction to be effective, when science teachers require writing activities for their students, they should give students feedback on their ideas and writing. Perhaps the extra time needed to respond to writing might overwhelm teachers and demand too much of their time. Professors from all fields know how important writing is for their students to succeed in all classes.

Consequences

Professors scored the lowest on Stage 4 (Consequences). These low scores (63%) point out that professors were not focused on the writing program's impact on students. Even though professors are interested in knowing more about the innovation, they are not willing to know the consequences on their students at this point. In fact, research showed that writing not only helps professors to assess students, but it also helps students to enhance their reading comprehension; this is because students' writing is formed based on what they have read. (Graham & Hebert, 2011). In addition, professors should be aware about the influence of the writing program on their students.

Refocusing

In Refocusing, the sixth and last stage, professors scored low with 63%. The tailing down on this stage indicated that professors did not have ideas that would

potentially compete with the writing program. The professors' profiles showed that professors had no idea how to improve or change students' writing

Are there significant differences in Stages of Concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics such as disciplines or languages?

It is apparent from the results of Research Questions 1, "Are there significant differences in Stages of Concern among professors based on a variety of characteristics such as disciplines or languages?" that professors across gender, languages, qualifications, fields of discipline and teaching experiences have different levels of concerns. The MONOVA showed that there are no significant differences between professors' profiles across all characters as it was shown in previous questions. In addition, the results showed that professors had the same stages of concern regardless of their gender, language, qualifications, field of discipline or teaching experience.

Implications

The research results emphasize the important of concern over the new writing program. The results would help the policy makers at Taibah University to facilitate professors' clear understanding and develop constructive meaning for the new writing program. In addition, the results of this study would assist the decision makers in supporting program implementation. In fact, the program will not find ways into actual practice in the classroom if the implementation is not monitored and appropriate interventions are not provided. Wood (1989) according to Vaughan, (1997) identified that the teachers' concern is key to successful intervention. Therefore, identifying

professors' concerns might help Taibah University to design appropriate workshops to resolve the concerns toward adopting the new writing program in its curriculum.

According to the results, the workshops should focus on the informational in order to provide them with more information about the program. It should also focus on personal concerns where professors experience conflict between their current roles and the changes they might face as a result of implementing the new writing program. The workshops should initially focus on the awareness to have professors think about the innovation as central to their curriculum. The results also suggest that workshops are not needed for professors at this time because they do not have any issue with logistics, time, or management issues. The low score on stage 5 (Consequences) indicates that intervention about the impact of the new writing program on student learning should be provided.

Based on the developers of CBAM, professors concerns develop through all seven stages (awareness, informational, personal, management, consequence, collaboration, and refocusing) if they have the opportunity to experience the program. In addition, if they experience the program for an extended time, professors who participated in this study will show great progress in their profile of concerns. Therefore, it is very important to develop and design workshops for those professors to meet their needs and improve their stage of concerns about the new writing program. Because there are no significant differences across gender, languages, fields of discipline, qualifications, and teaching experiences, these findings suggest that there does not need to be different content for the workshops based on different groups. In other words, all professors at Taibah University

shared similar concerns toward the program, so they can attend the same workshops in order to improve their stage of concerns toward implementing the initiative.

The following suggestions could be made for professors interested in the new writing program. Based on the results, the workshop should focus on several points to effectively improve the stage of concern before implementing the writing program:

- The workshops should address the importance of the program and why professors should consider it as the center of curricula and encourage them to spend more time thinking about and focusing on this program.
- In addition, the workshops should provide more information and discuss the possibility of using the program. In addition, the workshops should also cover all possible resources that are available for the professors to utilize if the university decides to adopt this program. Professors need to know the requirements for this initiative in the immediate future, and need to learn why this program is better than what is currently at the university.
- The workshops can discuss who will make the decisions in the program, and how the professors' teaching or administration may change if the program is adopted. In fact, more information regarding time and energy commitments required by this initiative should be provided. Professors should also learn how adopting the program affects their professional status and how their roles will change when they implement the program.
- The workshops should cover the impact of the program on students. In addition, professors need to know what the research shows about the influence of this

program on students. They should learn how to evaluate the impact of the innovation on their students, and how to use their students' feedback in order to revise and adapt the program.

All these suggestions should be included in training before adopting the innovation in order to improve professors concerns. Then, the same questionnaire could be given to the professors to discern the effectiveness of the workshops.

Limitation

Because of the difficulties in meeting professors at Taibah University in person or by phone, this study could not use the open-ended response to collect qualitative data.

Conclusion

This study used SoCQ to find out the stage of concern for the professors at Taibah University regarding the writing program. The study found that stage 1 (Informational), stage 2 (Personal) and stage 0 (Unconcern), received higher scores than other stages. Even though professors are willing to learn more information about the initiative, they believe that adopting the program might affect their personal stage. In fact, professors did not show concern about management of their time when the program is applied, but they were not willing to collaborate with their colleagues from other departments or universities in terms of how to apply the program. In fact, professors did show a high concern about the impact of the program on their students, and they did not have other ideas that could work better than this innovation. Additionally, the study provided some

suggestions for the content of the program in order to improve professors concerns toward the initiative.

Further Study

Further studies should be conducted after the workshops are done in order to determine the effectiveness of the workshops towards professors concerns about implementing the program. Administrators, deans, department chairs, and students should be included in further studies because they are key components of the implementation process. Also, further study should use open-ended responses to collect qualitative data to understand the main factors that affect the professors concerns toward implementing the writing program. Because most universities in Saudi Arabia have similar systems, it is possible to conduct research to determine if there is a significant difference among professors from various universities across the country in their stage of concerns.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Human Subjects Research Committee Permission



APPROVAL OF PROTOCOL

September 23, 2016

Fahad Alharbi
fahad2009@ku.edu

Dear Fahad Alharbi:

On 9/23/2016, the IRB reviewed the following submission:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title of Study:	The Perceptions of Professors from Different Disciplines at Taibah University regarding Undergraduate Students' Writing
Investigator:	Fahad Alharbi
IRB ID:	STUDY00004571
Funding:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• Fahad's consent.docx, • HSCL-NewSubmission-Form-V3.pdf, • Permission.pdf, • Permission, • Survey, • CBAM (1).docx

The IRB approved the study on 9/23/2016.

1. Notify HSCL about any new investigators not named in original application. Note that new investigators must take the online tutorial at https://rgs.drupal.ku.edu/human_subjects_compliance_training.
2. Any injury to a subject because of the research procedure must be reported immediately.
3. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents for at least three years past completion of the research activity.

Continuing review is not required for this project, however you are required to report any significant changes to the protocol prior to altering the project.

Please note university data security and handling requirements for your project:
<https://documents.ku.edu/policies/IT/DataClassificationandHandlingProceduresGuide.htm>

You must use the final, watermarked version of the consent form, available under the "Documents" tab in eCompliance.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Dyson Elms, MPA
IRB Administrator, KU Lawrence Campus

Appendix B

A Letter of Introduction to Professor

Consent for Participation in Research

The Perceptions of Professors from Different Disciplines at Taibah University regarding Undergraduate Students' Writing

INTRODUCTION

The Department of Curriculum and Teaching at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You may refuse to sign this form and not participate in this study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time. If you do withdraw from this study, it will not affect your relationship with this unit, the services it may provide to you, or the University of Kansas. You will complete a survey about The Perceptions of Professors from Different Disciplines at Taibah University regarding Undergraduate Students' Writing. Your participation will take 10 -20 minutes.

Purpose: The purpose of this survey is to determine the concerns of professors from different disciplines in adopting writing program for specific academic purposes* in their teaching.

This survey is completely confidential.

RISKS

There are no risks involved in participating in the study.

BENEFITS

Benefits to the greater society include a more robust understanding of how beginning teachers conceptualize the challenges posed to them in the teaching profession.

PAYMENT TO PARTICIPANTS

The participation is voluntary. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty

PARTICIPANT CONFIDENTIALITY

Your name will not be associated in any publication or presentation with the information collected about you or with the research findings from this study. Instead, the researcher(s) will use a study number or a pseudonym rather than your name. Your identifiable information will not be shared unless (a) it is required by law or university policy, or (b) you give written permission.

Permission granted on this date to use and disclose your information remains in effect indefinitely. By signing this form you give permission for the use and disclosure of your information for purposes of this study at any time in the future.

INSTITUTIONAL DISCLAIMER STATEMENT

In the event of injury, the Kansas Tort Claims Act provides for compensation if it can be demonstrated that the injury was caused by the negligent or wrongful act or omission of a state employee acting within the scope of his/her employment.

REFUSAL TO SIGN CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You are not required to sign this Consent and Authorization form and you may refuse to do so without affecting your right to any services you are receiving or may receive from the University of Kansas or to participate in any programs or events of the University of Kansas. However, if you refuse to sign, you cannot participate in this study.

CANCELLING THIS CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

Be sure to consider the length of time the data will be collected and include whether you will use information that was collected prior to the participant's cancellation of permission. For example: You may withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time. You also have the right to cancel your permission to use and disclose further information collected about you, in writing, at any time, by sending your written request to: *Fill in name and campus address of Researcher here.*

If you cancel permission to use your information, the researchers will stop collecting additional information about you. However, the research team may use and disclose information that was gathered before they received your cancellation, as described above.

QUESTIONS ABOUT PARTICIPATION

Questions about procedures should be directed to the researcher(s) listed at the end of this consent form.

PARTICIPANT CERTIFICATION:

I have read this Consent and Authorization form. I have had the opportunity to ask, and I have received answers to, any questions I had regarding the study. I understand that if I have any additional questions about my rights as a research participant, I may call (785) 864-7429 or (785) 864-7385, write the Human Research Protection Program (HRPP), University of Kansas, 2385 Irving Hill Road, Lawrence, Kansas 66045-7568, or email irb@ku.edu.

I agree to take part in this study as a research participant. By my signature I affirm that I am at least 18 years old and that I have received a copy of this Consent and Authorization form.

Type/Print Participant's Name Date

Participant's Signature

<p>Researcher Contact Information Fahad Alharbi PhD Student Curriculum and Teaching Dept. University of Kansas Fahad2009@ku.edu 7853122545</p>	<p>Faculty Supervisor Heidi L. Hallman Associate Professor, English education Dept. of Curriculum and Teaching University of Kansas hhallman@ku.edu</p>
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Appendix C

The Original vs. the Modified Statements of the Stages of Concern Questionnaire

	Original Statements	Statements After Modification
1.	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the innovation.	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the writing program.
2.	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.	I now know of some other approaches that might work better than the writing program.
3.	I am more concerned about another innovation.	I am more concerned about another program rather than the writing program.
4.	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day when I teach the writing program.
5.	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the writing program.
6.	I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.	I have a very limited knowledge of the writing program.
7.	I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.	I would like to know the effect of the writing program on my professional status.
8.	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.
9.	I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.	I am concerned about revising my use of writing program.
10.	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this writing program.
11.	I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.	I am concerned about how the writing program affects students.
12.	I am not concerned about the innovation at this time.	I am not concerned about the writing program at this time.
13.	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.
14.	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the writing program.
15.	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the innovation.	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the writing

		program.
16.	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that the innovation requires.	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that writing program requires.
17.	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.
18.	I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of this new approach.	I would like to familiarize other universities or faculty with the progress of this new approach.
19.	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.
20.	I would like to revise the innovation's approach.	I would like to revise the writing program's approach.
21.	I am preoccupied with things other than the innovation.	I am preoccupied with things other than the writing program.
22.	I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.	I would like to modify our use of the writing program based on the experiences of our students.
23.	I spend little time thinking about the innovation.	I spend little time thinking about the writing program.
24.	I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.	I would like to excite my students about their part in the writing program.
25.	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the innovation.	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the writing program.
26.	I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future	I would like to know what the use of the writing program will require in the immediate future.
27.	I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects.	I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the writing program's effects.
28.	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the innovation.	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the writing program.
29.	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.
30.	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the innovation.	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the writing program.
31.	I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.	I would like to determine how to supplement or enhance or replace the writing program
32.	I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.	I would like to use feedback from students to change the writing program.
33.	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the writing program.

34.	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.
35.	I would like to know how the innovation is better than what we have now.	I would like to know how the writing program is better than what we have now.

Appendix D

The Arabic-Translated Stages of Concern Questionnaire

	Original Statements	Arabic-Translated Statements
1.	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the innovation.	اهتم بمواقف طلابي نحو الابتكار.
2.	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.	أعرف حاليًا أساليب أخرى قد تعمل بشكل أفضل.
3.	I am more concerned about another innovation.	أنا مهتم كثيرًا بابتكار آخر.
4.	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.	أنا قلق بخصوص عدم وجود وقت كاف لتنظيم نفسي كل يوم.
5.	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.	أرغب في مساعدة المعلمين الآخرين في استخدامهم للابتكار.
6.	I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.	لدي معلومات محدودة جدًا عن الابتكار.
7.	I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.	أرغب في معرفة أثر إعادة التنظيم على وضعي المهني.
8.	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.	أنا قلق بخصوص التعارض بين اهتماماتي ومسؤولياتي.
9.	I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.	أنا مهتم بتعديل استخدامي للابتكار.
10.	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.	أرغب في إقامة علاقات عمل مع طاقم التعليم الخاص بنا وطاقم تعليم من الخارج يستخدم هذا الابتكار.
11.	I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.	أنا مهتم بكيفية تأثير الابتكار على الطالب.
12.	I am not concerned about the innovation at this time.	أنا لا اهتم بالابتكار في الوقت الحالي.
13.	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.	أرغب في معرفة من س يضع القرارات في النظام الجديد.
14.	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.	أرغب في المناقشة حول امكانية استخدام الابتكار.
15.	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the innovation.	أرغب في معرفة المصادر التعليمية المتوفرة في حال قررنا تبني الابتكار.
16.	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that the innovation requires.	أنا قلق لعدم قدرتي على إدارة كل ما يتطلبه الابتكار.
17.	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.	أرغب في معرفة كيف سيتغير تدريسي أو إدارتي.

18	I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of this new approach.	رغب في المام الأقسام الأخرى أو الأشخاص الآخرين بتقدم هذا الأسلوب الجديد.
19.	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.	أنا مهتم بتقييم أثري على الطالب.
20.	I would like to revise the innovation's approach.	أرغب في تعديل أسلوب هذا الابتكار.
21.	I am preoccupied with things other than the innovation.	أنا مشغول بأشياء علاوة على الابتكار.
22.	I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.	أرغب في تغيير استخدامنا للابتكار بناء على خبرات طلابنا.
23.	I spend little time thinking about the innovation.	أقضي وقتاً قليلاً للتفكير حول الابتكار.
24.	I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.	أرغب في استثارة طلابي حول دورهم في هذا الأسلوب
25.	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the innovation.	أنا قلق بشأن الوقت المبذول في العمل مع المشكلات الغير تعليمية المتعلقة بالابتكار.
26.	I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future	أرغب في معرفة ما سيتطلبه استخدام الابتكار في المستقبل العاجل.
27.	I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects.	أرغب في تنسيق جهودي مع الآخرين لزيادة آثار الابتكار.
28.	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the innovation.	أرغب في الحصول على المزيد من المعلومات عن الالتزامات الخاصة بالوقت والجهد المطلوبة من قبل الابتكار.
29.	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.	أرغب في معرفة ما يفعله المعلمون الآخرون في هذا المجال.
30.	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the innovation.	حاليا أولويات أخرى تمنعني من تركيز انتباهي على حاليا الابتكار.
31.	I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.	أرغب في تحديد كيفية اتمام أو تعزيز أو استبدال الابتكار.
32.	I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.	أرغب في استخدام التغذية الراجعة من الطالب لعمل تغييرات في البرنامج.
33.	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.	أرغب في معرفة كيف سيتغير دوري عندما استخدم الابتكار.
34.	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.	تنسيق المهام والأشخاص يأخذ الكثير من وقتي.
35.	I would like to know how the innovation is better than what we have now.	أرغب في معرفة كيف يكون هذا الابتكار افضل مما لدينا حاليا.

Appendix E

The Back-Translated Stages of Concern Questionnaire

Back-Translated Statements	Arabic-Translated Statements	
I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the innovation.	اهتم بمواقف طلابي نحو الابتكار.	1.
I now know of some other approaches that might work better.	أعرف حاليًا أساليب أخرى قد تعمل بشكل أفضل.	2.
I am more concerned about another innovation.	أنا مهتم كثيرًا بابتكار آخر.	3.
I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.	أنا قلق بخصوص عدم وجود وقت كاف لتنظيم نفسي كل يوم.	4.
I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.	أرغب في مساعدة المعلمين الآخرين في استخدامهم للابتكار.	5.
I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.	لدي معلومات محدودة جدًا عن الابتكار.	6.
I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.	أرغب في معرفة أثر إعادة التنظيم على وضعي المهني.	7.
I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.	أنا قلق بخصوص التعارض بين اهتماماتي ومسؤولياتي.	8.
I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.	أنا مهتم بتعديل استخدامي للابتكار.	9.
I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.	أرغب في إقامة علاقات عمل مع طاقم التعليم الخاص بنا وطاقم تعليم من الخارج يستخدم هذا الابتكار.	10.
I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.	أنا مهتم بكيفية تأثير الابتكار على الطالب.	11.
I am not concerned about the innovation at this time.	أنا لا اهتم بالابتكار في الوقت الحالي.	12.
I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.	أرغب في معرفة من سيضع القرارات في النظام الجديد.	13.
I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.	أرغب في المناقشة حول امكانية استخدام الابتكار.	14.
I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the innovation.	أرغب في معرفة المصادر التعليمية المتوفرة في حال قررنا تبني الابتكار.	15.
I am concerned about my inability to manage all that the innovation requires.	أنا قلق لعدم قدرتي على إدارة كل ما يتطلبه الابتكار.	16.
I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.	أرغب في معرفة كيف سيتغير تدريسي أو إدارتي.	17.
I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of this new approach.	رغب في المام الأقسام الأخرى أو الأشخاص الآخرين بتقدم هذا الأسلوب الجديد.	18.
I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.	أنا مهتم بتقييم أثري على الطالب.	19.
I would like to revise the innovation's	أرغب في تعديل أسلوب هذا الابتكار.	20.

approach.		
I am preoccupied with things other than the innovation.	أنا مشغول بأشياء علاوة على الابتكار.	21.
I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.	أرغب في تغيير استخدامنا للابتكار بناءً على خبرات طلابنا.	22.
I spend little time thinking about the innovation.	أقضي وقتاً قليلاً للتفكير حول الابتكار.	23.
I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.	أرغب في استثارة طلابي حول دورهم في هذا الأسلوب	24.
I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the innovation.	أنا قلق بشأن الوقت المبذول في العمل مع المشكلات الغير تعليمية المتعلقة بالابتكار.	25.
I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future	أرغب في معرفة ما سيتطلبه استخدام الابتكار في المستقبل العاجل.	26.
I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects.	أرغب في تنسيق جهودي مع الآخرين لزيادة آثار الابتكار.	27.
I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the innovation.	أرغب في الحصول على المزيد من المعلومات عن الالتزامات الخاصة بالوقت والجهد المطلوبة من قبل الابتكار.	28.
I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.	أرغب في معرفة ما يفعله المعلمون الآخرون في هذا المجال.	29.
Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the innovation.	حاليا أولويات أخرى تمنعني من تركيز انتباهي على حاليا الابتكار.	30.
I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.	أرغب في تحديد كيفية اتمام أو تعزيز أو استبدال الابتكار.	31.
I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.	أرغب في استخدام التغذية الراجعة من الطالب لعمل تغييرات في البرنامج.	32.
I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.	أرغب في معرفة كيف سيتغير دوري عندما استخدم الابتكار.	33.
Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.	تنسيق المهام والأشخاص يأخذ الكثير من وقتي.	34.
I would like to know how the innovation is better than what we have now.	أرغب في معرفة كيف يكون هذا الابتكار افضل مما لدينا حاليا.	35.

Appendix F

Back-Translated Statements vs. Original Statements of the Stages of Concern

	Original Statements	Original Statements
1.	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the innovation.	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the innovation.
2.	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.
3.	I am more concerned about another innovation.	I am more concerned about another innovation.
4.	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.
5.	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.
6.	I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.	I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.
7.	I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.	I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.
8.	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.
9.	I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.	I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.
10.	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.
11.	I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.	I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.
12.	I am not concerned about the innovation at this time.	I am not concerned about the innovation at this time.
13.	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.
14.	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.
15.	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the innovation.	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the innovation.
16.	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that the innovation requires.	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that the innovation requires.
17.	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.
18.	I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of this new approach.	I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of this new approach.
19.	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.

20.	I would like to revise the innovation's approach.	I would like to revise the innovation's approach.
21.	I am preoccupied with things other than the innovation.	I am preoccupied with things other than the innovation.
22.	I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.	I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.
23.	I spend little time thinking about the innovation.	I spend little time thinking about the innovation.
24.	I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.	I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.
25.	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the innovation.	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the innovation.
26.	I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future	I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future
27.	I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects.	I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects.
28.	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the innovation.	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the innovation.
29.	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.
30.	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the innovation.	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the innovation.
31.	I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.	I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.
32.	I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.	I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.
33.	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.
34.	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.
35.	I would like to know how the innovation is better than what we have now.	I would like to know how the innovation is better than what we have now.

Appendix G

The Research Study Instrument (Arabic Version)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

عزيزي الأستاذ الجامعي، السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.... وبعد

أشكرك مقدماً على حسن تعاونك في إتمام هذه الدراسة والتي تهدف لتطوير الجانب الكتابي الوظيفي للطلاب الجامعي في مجاله الدراسي. حيث يدعوا ويؤكد العديد من التربويين أنه يجب أن يُعد الطلاب في مهارة الكتابة من خلال المقررات اللغوية بناء على التخصص الدقيق للطلاب. وتشير الدراسات الحديثة أنه ينبغي أن يكون هناك تعاون بين أعضاء هيئة التدريس من الأقسام التخصصية وأعضاء هيئة التدريس من قسمي (اللغة العربية واللغة الإنجليزية) من أجل تصميم برنامج كتابي لتدريس جميع أنواع مهارات الكتابة لطلاب التخصص والتي من شأنها أن تساعد الطلاب على تحسين أداءهم الكتابي في مجالاتهم الأكاديمية.

الغرض من هذه الاستبانة هو التعرف على اهتمامات أعضاء هيئة التدريس بجامعة طيبة نحو تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي للطلاب كل مجال. كما أحب أن أنوه بأن المعلومات المقدمة لهذه الدراسة سوف تعامل بسرية تامة ولن تستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط. الوقت المتوقع لإنهاء الاستبيان 10 إلى 15 دقيقة.

عزيزي الأستاذ الجامعي، أشكرك جزيل الشكر على إعطائي هذا الجزء من وقتك الثمين للمشاركة في هذا الاستبيان ويسعدني الإجابة على أي سؤال يتعلق بالدراسة أو المشاركة فيها وذلك عبر وسائل الاتصال الموضحة في الأسفل.

الباحث : فهد بن عبدالله الحربي

جامعة كانساس

Fahad2009@ku.edu

*المقصود بالبرنامج الكتابي (المُشار إليه في الاستبيان) هو عبارة عن برنامج يتم إعداده وتدريبه بالتعاون بين قسمي اللغة العربية أو الإنجليزية والأقسام الأخرى بحيث يحوي البرنامج جميع أنواع الكتابة ومهاراتها التي يحتاجها الطالب عند دراسة تخصص معين حسب الأهمية (مثال: كتابة الأبحاث والمقالات والتلخيصات والتقارير المعملية و الطبية إلخ).

القسم الأول:

للإجابة على هذا القسم، ينبغي اختيار رقم من (٠) إلى (٧) حسب شعورك، حيث يمثل (٠) عدم اهتمام كلي أو معرفة بالسؤال المطروح والرقم (٧) يمثل معرفة تامة. بينما تشكل الأرقام ما بينهما نسبة معرفتك وشعورك تجاه الموضوع. تذكر أن تكون اختياراتك تعبر عن وضعك الحالي

على سبيل المثال:

٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١ ٠
 ٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١ ٠
 ٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١ ٠
 ٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١ ٠

هذه العبارة صحيحة جدا لي في الوقت الحاضر
 هذه العبارة تنطبق علي بعض الشي
 هذا العبارة لا تنطبق علي في الوقت الحاضر
 هذا العبارة لا تعني لي شيئا

لا تنطبق علي مطلقا	لا تنطبق علي في الوقت الحاضر	تنطبق علي بعض الشي	تنطبق علي تماماً الآن
٠	١ ٢ ٣	٤ ٥ ٦	٧

العبارة	٠	١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧
١ أنا مهتم بمعرفة شعور الطلاب تجاه البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢ أعرف حالياً أساليب أخرى قد تعمل بشكل أفضل من البرنامج الكتابي.								
٣ ليس لدي معرفة بالبرنامج الكتابي.								
٤ أنا قلق لعدم وجود وقت كاف لتنظيم نفسي كل يوم.								
٥ أرغب في مساعدة الأساتذة الآخرين في تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٦ لدي معرفة محدودة جداً حول البرنامج الكتابي.								
٧ أرغب بمعرفة أثر تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي للتعلم على وضعي المهني								
٨ أنا قلق بخصوص التعارض بين اهتماماتي ومسؤولياتي عندما أطبق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٩ أنا مهتم بتعديل تطبيقي للبرنامج الكتابي.								
١٠ أرغب في إقامة علاقات عمل مع طاقم التعليم الخاص بنا وأساتذة من خارج الجامعة يستخدمون البرنامج الكتابي.								
١١ أنا مهتم بمعرفة أثر البرنامج الكتابي على الطلاب								
١٢ أنا غير مهتم بتطبيق البرنامج الكتابي في الوقت الحالي								
١٣ أرغب في معرفة من سيضع القرارات بخصوص تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								

١٤	أرغب في المناقشة حول كيفية تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
١٥	أرغب في معرفة مصادر التعلم المتوفرة في حال تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
١٦	أنا قلق لعدم قدرتي على إدارة كل ما يتطلبه تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي								
١٧	أرغب في معرفة كيف سيتغير تدريسي أو إدارتي في حال تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي								
١٨	أرغب في تزويد جامعات أخرى أو أساتذة آخرين بمعلومات حول عملية سير هذا التوجه الجديد								
١٩	أنا مهتم في تقييم تأثيري على الطلبة عندما أطبق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢٠	أرغب في تعديل أسلوب تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢١	أنا مشغول كلياً بأشياء أخرى.								
٢٢	أرغب في تعديل تطبيقي البرنامج الكتابي بناءً على خبرات طلابنا.								
٢٣	لعدم معرفتي بالبرنامج الكتابي، فأني قلق حول عدم إلمامي التام ببعض المتطلبات المستقبلية في هذا المجال.								
٢٤	أرغب في استثارة طلابي وبث حماسهم حول دورهم عند تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢٥	أنا قلق بالنسبة للوقت المبذول في العمل مع المشكلات غير التعليمية المتعلقة بتطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢٦	أرغب في معرفة ما سيتطلبه تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي في المستقبل القريب								
٢٧	أرغب في تنسيق جهودي مع الآخرين للحصول على أقصى الفوائد من خلال تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢٨	أرغب في الحصول على معلومات أكثر حول الوقت والجهد المطلوب لتطبيق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٢٩	أرغب في معرفة ما يفعله المعلمون الآخرون في تطبيقهم للبرنامج الكتابي.								
٣٠	حالياً أنا غير مهتم بمعرفة معلومات أكثر حول البرنامج الكتابي.								
٣١	أرغب في تحديد كيفية إتمام أو تعزيز تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي أو كيفية استبداله بشيء آخر أفضل.								
٣٢	أرغب في استخدام التغذية الراجعة من قبل الطلاب لعمل تغييرات على البرنامج الكتابي.								
٣٣	أرغب في معرفة كيف سيتغير دوري عندما أستخدم البرنامج الكتابي.								
٣٤	تنسيق المهام والأشخاص يأخذ الكثير من وقتي عندما أطبق البرنامج الكتابي.								
٣٥	أرغب في معرفة كيف يكون تطبيق البرنامج الكتابي أفضل مما لدينا حالياً								

القسم الثاني: المعلومات الشخصية

الجنس:

ذكر

▼ أنثى

اللغة الأساسية المستخدمة في التدريس:

☐ اللغة العربية

☐ اللغة الإنجليزية

مجال التدريس:

☐ العلوم الإنسانية والاجتماعية (اللغات، التربية، العلوم الاجتماعية، الحقوق، الدراسات الإسلامية، علوم الأسرة، الإعلام)

☐ العلوم الطبيعية والتطبيقية (الرياضيات، الفيزياء، الكيمياء، الإحياء، الهندسة، الحاسب الآلي)

☐ العلوم الطبية والطبية التطبيقية (الطب، طب الأسنان، الصيدلة، التأهيل الطبي، المختبرات، التمريض)

الدرجة العلمية:

☐ بكالوريوس

ماجستير

☐ دكتوراة

عدد سنوات الخبرة التدريسية:

☐ 1-5 سنوات

6-10 سنوات

☐ 11-15 سنة

☐ 16-20 سنة

20 سنة أو أكثر



Appendix H

The Research Study Instrument (English Version)

Dear professor,

The Department of Curriculum and Teaching at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

Purpose: The purpose of this survey is to determine the concerns of professors from different disciplines in adopting writing program for specific academic purposes* in their teaching.

Your participation is completely voluntary. It should take you about 10-20 minutes to complete the survey. This survey is completely confidential.

We thank you in advance!

* The meaning of the written program (referred to in the questionnaire) is a program that is set up and taught in collaboration between departments of the Arabic language or English and other departments. The program contains all kinds of writing and skills that are needed to be taught for students in their specific area (ex, writing research articles, summaries and lap report etc.).

Section A:

To answer this section, you should chose from 0-7, some items appear to be little relevance or irrelevant to you. For the completely irrelevant items, please circle (0) on the scale. If the items strong relevance, please circle (7) on the scale.

For example:

This statement is very true of me at this time

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

This statement is somewhat true of me now

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

This statement is not true of me now

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

This statement is irrelevant to me

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	Stages of Concern (CBAM)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the writing program.								
2	I now know of some other approaches that might work better than the writing program.								
3	I am more concerned about another program rather than the writing program.								
4	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day when I teach the writing program.								
5	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the writing program.								
6	I have a very limited knowledge of the writing program.								
7	I would like to know the effect of the writing program on my professional status.								
8	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.								
9	I am concerned about revising my use of writing program.								
10	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this writing program.								
11	I am concerned about how the writing program affects students.								
12	I am not concerned about the writing program at this time.								
13	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.								
14	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the writing program.								
15	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the writing program.								
16	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that writing program requires.								
17	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.								
18	I would like to familiarize other universities or faculty with the progress of this new approach.								
19	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.								
20	I would like to revise the writing program's approach.								
21	I am preoccupied with things other than the writing program.								
22	I would like to modify our use of the writing program based on the experiences of our students.								
	I spend little time thinking about the writing program.								

23									
24	I would like to excite my students about their part in the writing program.								
25	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the writing program.								
26	I would like to know what the use of the writing program will require in the immediate future.								
27	I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the writing program's effects.								
28	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the writing program.								
29	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.								
30	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the writing program.								
31	I would like to determine how to supplement or enhance or replace the writing program								
32	I would like to use feedback from students to change the writing program.								
33	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the writing program.								
34	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.								
35	I would like to know how the writing program is better than what we have now.								

Section B: Demographic information

Gender

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

The category of your discipline:

- Humanities and Social Sciences (Languages, education, social sciences, Islamic Studies, law, family science and media)
- Natural and Applied Sciences (mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, engineering, computer)
- Medical and Applied Medical Sciences (medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, medical rehabilitation, laboratories, nursing)

Main language of teaching:

- Arabic
- English

Qualification:

- Bachelor
- Master
- Doctorate

Teaching Experiences

- ☐ 1-5 years
- ☐ 6-10
- ☐ 11-15
- ☐ 16-20
- ☐ 20 or above

Appendix I

Statement on the Stages of Concern Questionnaire Arranged According to Stage

Item	Statement
Stage 0	
3	I am more concerned about another innovation.
12	I am not concerned about this innovation at this time.
21	I am preoccupied with things other than this innovation.
23	I spend little time thinking about this innovation.
30	Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on this innovation.
Stage 1	
6	I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.
14	I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.
15	I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt this innovation.
26	I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future.
35	I would like to know how this innovation is better than what we have now.
Stage 2	
7	I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.
13	I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.
17	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.
28	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by this innovation.
33	I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.
Stage 3	
4	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.
8	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.
16	I am concerned about my inability to manage all the innovation requires.
25	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to this innovation.
34	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.
Stage 4	
1	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward this innovation.
11	I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.
19	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.
24	I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.
32	I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.
Stage 5	
5	I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.
10	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.
18	I would like to familiarize other departments or people with the progress of this new approach.
27	I would like to coordinate my effort with others to maximize the innovation's effects.
29	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.
Stage 6	

2	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.
9	I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.
20	I would like to revise the innovation's instructional approach.
22	I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.
31	I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.

Appendix J
The Stages of Concern Quick Scoring Device

Stages of Concern Quick Scoring Device

The Quick Scoring Device can be used to hand score the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) responses and to plot an individual profile. It is especially useful when only a small number of questionnaires need to be processed or when computer processing is not available. By following the step-by-step instructions, the SoCQ responses are transferred to the device, entered into seven scales, and each scale is totaled. Then the seven raw scale score totals are translated into percentile scores and plotted on a grid to produce the individual's SoCQ profile.

Instructions

1. In the box labeled A, fill in the identifying information taken from the cover sheet of the SoCQ.
2. In the table labeled B on the Scoring Device, transcribe each of the 35 SoCQ circled responses from the questionnaire (raw data). Note that the numbered blanks are not in consecutive order.
3. Row C contains the Raw Scale Score Total for each stage (0–6). Take each of the seven columns (0–6) in Table B, add the numbers within each column, and enter the sum of each column (0–6) in the appropriate blank in Row C. Each of these seven Raw Scale Score totals is a number between 0 and 35.
4. Table D contains the percentile scores for each Stage of Concern. For example, find the Raw Scale Score Total for Stage 0 from Row C (“12” from the example) in the left-hand column in Table D, then look in the Stage 0 column to the right in Table D and circle that percentile rank (“69” in the example). Take the raw score for Stage 1 (“31” in the example) to Table D and locate that numeral in the left hand Raw Score Total column. Move across in the percentile table to the Stage 1 column and circle the percentile value (“98” in the example). Do the same for Stages 2 through 6.
5. Transcribe the circled percentile scores for each stage (0–6) from Table D to Box E. Box E now contains seven numbers between 0 and 99.
6. Box F contains the SoCQ grid. From Box E, take the percentile score for Stage 0 (“69” in the example) and mark that point with a dot on the Stage 0 vertical line of the SoCQ grid. Do the same for Stages 1–6. Connect the points to form the SoCQ profile.

You can now check your own scoring by using the blank profile sheet (see Appendix C). You will want to make copies of the blank scoring device before writing on it. Reproduce the data in the example by recording the original data from the completed SoCQ.

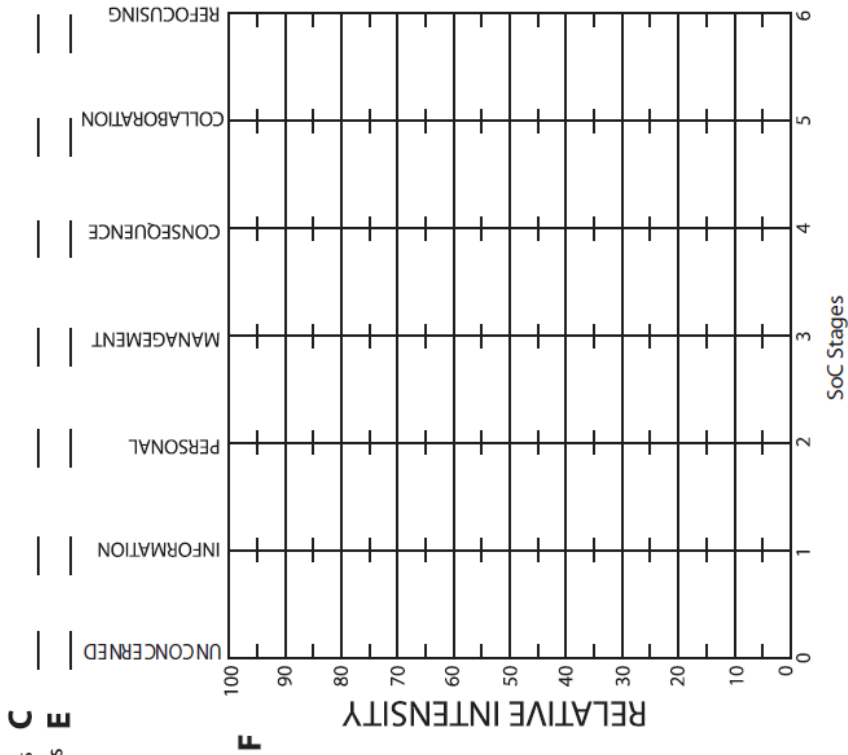
Stages of Concern Quick Scoring Device

Date: _____

Site: _____ SS#: _____

Innovation: _____

Stage	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
B	3	6	7	4	1	5	2
	12	14	13	8	11	10	9
	21	15	17	16	19	18	20
	23	26	28	25	24	27	22
	30	35	33	34	32	29	31



Five Item Raw Scale Score Total	Percentiles for:					
	Stage 0	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5
0	0	5	5	2	1	1
1	1	12	12	5	1	2
2	2	16	14	7	1	3
3	4	19	17	9	2	3
4	7	23	21	11	2	4
5	14	27	25	15	3	5
6	22	30	28	18	3	7
7	31	34	31	23	4	9
8	40	37	35	27	5	10
9	48	40	39	30	5	12
10	55	43	41	34	7	14
11	61	45	45	38	8	16
12	69	48	48	43	9	19
13	75	51	52	47	11	22
14	81	54	55	52	13	25
15	87	57	57	56	16	28
16	91	60	59	60	19	31
17	94	63	63	65	21	36
18	96	66	67	69	24	40
19	97	69	70	73	27	44
20	98	72	72	77	30	48
21	99	75	76	80	33	52
22	99	80	78	83	38	55
23	99	84	80	85	43	59
24	99	88	83	88	48	64
25	99	90	85	90	54	68
26	99	91	87	92	59	72
27	99	93	89	94	63	76
28	99	95	91	95	66	80
29	99	96	92	97	71	84
30	99	97	94	97	76	88
31	99	98	95	98	82	91
32	99	99	96	98	86	93
33	99	99	96	99	90	95
34	99	99	97	99	92	97
35	99	99	99	99	95	98

Concerns Based Systems International

Appendix K

The Stages of Concern Questionnaire

SoCQ 075

Stages of Concern Questionnaire

Name (optional): _____

The purpose of this questionnaire is to determine what people who are using or thinking about using various programs are concerned about at various times during the adoption process.

The items were developed from typical responses of school and college teachers who ranged from no knowledge at all about various programs to many years' experience using them. Therefore, **many of the items on this questionnaire may appear to be of little relevance or irrelevant to you at this time.** For the completely irrelevant items, please circle "0" on the scale. Other items will represent those concerns you do have, in varying degrees of intensity, and should be marked higher on the scale.

For example:

This statement is very true of me at this time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This statement is somewhat true of me now.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This statement is not at all true of me at this time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This statement seems irrelevant to me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please respond to the items in terms of **your present concerns**, or how you feel about your involvement with **this** innovation. We do not hold to any one definition of the innovation so please think of it in terms of your own perception of what it involves. Phrases such as "this approach" and "the new system" all refer to the same innovation. Remember to respond to each item in terms of your present concerns about your involvement or potential involvement with the innovation.

Thank you for taking time to complete this task.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Irrelevant	Not true of me now		Somewhat true of me now			Very true of me now	

Circle One Number For Each Item

1. I am concerned about students' attitudes toward the innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I now know of some other approaches that might work better.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am more concerned about another innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have a very limited knowledge of the innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I would like to know the effect of reorganization on my professional status.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I am concerned about revising my use of the innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using this innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am concerned about how the innovation affects students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I am not concerned about the innovation at this time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I would like to know who will make the decisions in the new system.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I would like to discuss the possibility of using the innovation.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt the innovation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I am concerned about my inability to manage all that the innovation requires.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of this new approach.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Irrelevant	Not true of me now		Somewhat true of me now			Very true of me now	

Circle One Number For Each Item

19. I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. I would like to revise the innovation's approach.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. I am preoccupied with things other than the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. I would like to modify our use of the innovation based on the experiences of our students.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. I spend little time thinking about the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. I would like to excite my students about their part in this approach.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. I would like to know what the use of the innovation will require in the immediate future.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29. I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. Currently, other priorities prevent me from focusing my attention on the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31. I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32. I would like to use feedback from students to change the program.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. I would like to know how my role will change when I am using the innovation.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34. Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. I would like to know how the innovation is better than what we have now.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7